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CENTRAL PROVINCES

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PREFACE

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PROVINCIAL GAZETTEERS OF INDIA

CENTRAL PROVINCES

Central Provinces.—A Province under a Chief Commissioner, or Local Administration, situated in the centre of the peninsula, and comprising a large portion of the broad belt of hill and plateau country which separates the plains of Hindustān from the Deccan[1]. The Province lies between 17° 47′ and 24° 27′ N. and between 75° 57′ and 84° 24′ E. Its shape from north-west to south-east approximates to that of a rectangle, broader at the lower than at the upper extremity. The extreme length from north to south is 500 miles and the breadth from east to west also about 500 miles, while the area is 113,281 square miles, of which 82,093 are British territory and the remainder held by Feudatory chiefs. The Province is bounded on the north and north-west by the Central India States, and along a small strip of Saugor District by the United Provinces; on the west by the States of Bhopāl and Indore, and by the Khāndesh District of Bombay; on the south by Berār, the Nizām's Dominions, and large *zamīndāri* estates of the Madras Presidency; and on the east by the last, and by the Tributary States of Bengal. The Central Provinces are thus enclosed on nearly every side by Native States, and are cut off geographically from other British Provinces.

General description.

Situation and boundaries.

The Province may be divided from north-west to south-east

Natural divisions.

[1] Since October 1, 1903, Berār has been administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces. But except where the contrary is expressly stated, this article treats of the Central Provinces without Berār. In 1905 the greater part of Sambalpur District, together with the five Feudatory States of Bāmra, Rairākhol, Sonpur, Patnā, and Kālāhandī, were transferred to Bengal, while the five Feudatory States of Chāng Bhakār, Koreā, Surgujā, Udaipur, and Jashpur were transferred from Bengal to the Central Provinces. The statistics of area and population have been altered to show the effect of these transfers, but the other statistics contained in this article are for the area of the Central Provinces as it stood in 1903–4 before the transfers.

into three tracts of upland, alternating with two of plain country. In the north-west the Districts of Saugor and Damoh lie on the Vindhyan or Mālwā plateau, the southern face of which rises almost sheer from the valley of the Narbadā. The general elevation of this plateau varies from 1,500 to 2,000 feet. The highest part is that immediately overhanging the Narbadā, and the general slope is to the north, the rivers of this area being tributaries of the Jumna and Ganges. The surface of the country is undulating, and broken by frequent low hills covered with a growth of poor and stunted forest. Another division consists of the long and narrow valley of the Narbadā, walled in by the Vindhyan and Sātpurā hills to the north and south, and extending for a length of about 200 miles from Jubbulpore to Handiā, with an average width of twenty miles. The valley is situated to the south of the river, and is formed of deep alluvial deposits of extreme richness, excellently suited to the growth of wheat. Lofty and spreading *mahuā* trees stud the plain; and its surface is scoured by the numerous and rapid streams which, pouring down from the Sātpurā Hills during the rainy season, have cut for themselves a passage to the Narbadā through the soft soil. South of the valley the Sātpurā range or third division stretches across the Province, in the shape of a large triangle, its base or eastern face extending for 100 miles from Amarkantak to the Sāletekrī hills in Bālāghāt, and its sides running westward for about 400 miles, and gradually approaching each other till they terminate in two parallel ridges which bound on either side the narrow valley of the Tāpti river in Nimār. The greater part consists of an elevated plateau, in some parts merely a rugged mass of hills hurled together by volcanic action, in others a succession of bare stony ridges and narrow fertile valleys, in which the soil has been deposited by drainage. Steep slopes lead up to the summit of the plateau from the plain country on the north and south, which are traversed in all directions by narrow deep ravines, hollowed out by the action of the streams and rivers, and covered throughout their extent with forest. The general elevation of the plateau is 2,000 feet, but several of the peaks rise to 3,500 and a few to more than 4,000 feet. The Sātpurās form the watershed of the plains lying north and south of them; and some of the more important rivers of the Province, the Narbadā, Tāpti, Wardhā, and Waingangā, rise in these hills. Extending along the southern and eastern faces of the Sātpurā range lies the fourth geographical division, the plain of Nāgpur, Chhattīsgarh, and Sambalpur. It is broken in two

places by strips of hilly country which run from the Sātpurās in the north to the ranges enclosing it on the south, and is thus divided into three tracts presenting some dissimilar features. The Nāgpur plain drained by the Wardhā and Waingangā contains towards the west the shallow black soil in which autumn crops like cotton and the large millet, *jowār*, which do not require excessive moisture, can be successfully cultivated. This area, mainly comprised in the valley of the Wardhā river, is the great cotton-growing tract of the Province, and at present the most wealthy. The eastern half of the Nāgpur plain, situated in the valley of the Waingangā, possesses a heavier rainfall and is mainly a rice-growing tract. Its distinctive feature is marked by the numerous tanks which have been constructed for the irrigation of rice, and which have caused it to receive the name of the 'lake country' of Nāgpur. To the east of the Nāgpur plain, separated from it by a belt of hilly country, lies the great plain of Chhattīsgarh, comprising the open country of Raipur and Bilāspur Districts, and forming the upper basin of the Mahānadī river. The Mahānadī flows through the southern portion of the plain, skirting the hills which border it to the south, while its great tributary the Seonāth brings to it the drainage of Raipur. Along the north the Sātpurā range overlooks the low country, the surface of which is an expanse of small embanked rice-fields, sometimes fifty to an acre, separated by ridges of uncultivable gravel. Except for these undulations the level of the plain is generally unbroken; and over large areas there are few trees other than the mango groves adjoining the more important of the frequent clusters of mud-roofed huts which form a Chhattīsgarh village. To the east of Chhattīsgarh lies the plain which forms the middle basin of the Mahānadī, comprising Sambalpur District and the States of Sonpur, Patnā, and Kālāhandī[1]. South of these level tracts lies another expanse of hill and plateau, comprised in the *zamīndāri* estate of Chānda and the Chhattīsgarh Division, and the Bastar and Kānker Feudatory chiefships, nearly touching the Sātpurās on the north, and running south and east till in Kālāhandī it merges into the Eastern Ghāts. This vast area, covering about 24,000 square miles, the greater part of which is dense forest with precipitous mountains and ravines, which formerly rendered it impervious to Hindu invasion or immigration, producing only on isolated stretches of cultivable land the poorest rains

[1] This area, comprising Sambalpur District and five adjoining Feudatory States, was transferred to Bengal in 1905.

crops, and sparsely peopled by primitive Gonds and other forest tribes, was probably until a comparatively short time ago the wildest and least known part of the whole peninsula. In recent years it has been opened up in all directions by good roads, constructed under Government supervision from the funds of the estates through which they pass.

Rivers.

With the exception of the small Vindhyan plateau, the rivers of which flow north to Hindustān, and the narrow valley of the Tāpti in Nimār, practically the whole of the Central Provinces lies in the catchment basin of three rivers, the Narbadā, the Godāvari, and the Mahānadī. The Godāvari itself, however, only skirts the south-western border of Chānda District for a short distance; and it is to its tributaries, the Prānhita, formed by the junction of the Wardā and Waingangā, and the Indrāvati and other rivers from Bastar, that the important position of this river in the drainage system of the Province is due. Of the rivers a larger proportion of whose course lies in the Province, the Narbadā, Mahānadī, Wardhā, and Waingangā are the chief, all of these having a length of some hundreds of miles within its limits. They resemble each other in that their sources and the greater part of their catchment basins lie at a considerable elevation above the sea; and owing to the rapid fall of level, they have cut for themselves deep beds many feet below the surface of the country which they drain. In the rainy season they become swift torrents; but when dry weather sets in they rapidly dwindle to a chain of stagnant pools, connected by an insignificant streamlet trickling over masses of rock or meandering through broad wastes of sand.

Scenery.

Though the scenery is on too small a scale to compare in sublimity with that of the Himālayas, it is on the other hand as far removed from the monotony of the plains of Hindustān. The recurring contrast of woodland and tillage and the alternation of hill and valley, wood and river, cannot but be grateful to eyes fatigued by the sameness of dusty Indian plains. In the Narbadā valley during the pleasant winter months the eye may range over miles of green corn land, broken by low black boundary ridges or twisting footpaths. The horizon is bounded on either side by hill ranges which seem to rise abruptly from the plain; but on coming nearer to them, the heavy green of their slopes is found to be divided from the softer hues of the young wheat by broad belts of gravelly soil, carpeted with short sward and dotted with noble trees, recalling the appearance of an English park. On the Sātpurās, the high and abrupt hills, clothed from summit to

base with forest, and seamed by the deep courses of the streams, up which the roads twist and turn, disclosing to the traveller here and there a glimpse of the cultivated plain stretching far beneath him, and the plateau with its rolling steppes of basalt alternating with little valleys cultivated like gardens, present a variety of scenery not less attractive. But except at one period of the year the velvety freshness of an English landscape is wanting. During the hot months, the plains lying baked and scorched by the dry heat are as lifeless as a moor under a black frost. Even in the winter, though the wheat-growing tracts retain their freshness of appearance, the rice-fields quickly harden into an expanse of bare yellow stubble. But with the breaking of the monsoon all is changed. The abundant growth of vegetation, in an atmosphere like a hothouse, is so rapid as almost to be imagined perceptible; and the new foliage, clothed in the softest tints of green and glittering with rain-drops, covers the whole surface of a country which a month earlier seemed little better than an arid desert. Nor is the aspect less beautiful in September, when, from some such point as the hill overlooking the Mahānadī at Sambalpur, can be seen miles of continuous fields heavy with irrigated rice, the ripening ears of dark green or light yellow changing in hue with the passing shadows of the clouds, while in the background wooded hills covered with darker coloured foliage fringe the horizon, and in the clear atmosphere of this season appear to be less than half their real distance away.

Religious associations.

The tortuous gorge of white marble through which the Narbadā winds with a deep silent course is now well-known to Indian tourists, but many spots hidden away in corners of little-travelled Districts are as well worthy of a visit. At Amarkantak, where the eastern hills reach their culminating point in a country so rugged and difficult that until fifty years ago scarcely a single European traveller had visited it, the sources of the sacred Narbadā are guarded by a little colony of priests who have reared their temples amid the solitary forests; westwards the caves and wild gorges of the Mahādeo hills are sanctified and made the goal of pilgrims, as the scene where Siva formerly made himself manifest to his worshippers. The group of temples at Muktāgiri in Betūl, though selected by Fergusson as a type of Jain architecture, owe their reputation rather to their picturesque position in a wooded valley at the foot of a waterfall, than to any special degree of art or taste displayed in their construction. And many similar instances could be given.

Geology[1]. Different formations. Alluvium.

The six geological formations occurring in the Central Provinces may be arranged in the following order: Alluvium, the Deccan trap, the Gondwāna system, the Vindhyan system, the Transition system, and the Gneissic system. The valley of the Narbadā from Jubbulpore to Hardā is a great alluvial flat, chiefly composed of a stiff reddish, yellowish, or brownish clay, with intercalated bands of sand and gravel. The thickness of the clay seldom exceeds 100 feet, but a boring made near Gādarwāra attained a depth of 491 feet without reaching the base of the alluvial deposits. The deposits have yielded fossils consisting of shells and the bones of both extinct and existing animals, such as the elephant, rhinoceros, and hippopotamus. The only trace of man hitherto found in them consists of a chipped stone scraper or hatchet made of Vindhyan quartzite, unearthed eight miles north of Gādarwāra.

The Deccan trap.

The basaltic or volcanic rocks known as the Deccan trap cover a large area in the Central Provinces, occupying the greater portion of the Districts of Saugor, Jubbulpore, Mandlā, Seonī, Chhindwāra, Nimār, Nāgpur, and Wardhā. They are horizontally stratified; and between layers of the igneous rock, sedimentary beds containing numerous fresh-water fossils are found, showing that between the successive lava-flows sufficient epochs of time elapsed to allow life to appear again on the surface. The region covered by the volcanic rocks consists usually of undulating plains, divided from each other by flat-topped ranges of hills. The hill-sides are marked by conspicuous terraces, due to the outcrop of the harder basaltic strata, or of those beds which best resist the disintegrating influences of exposure. Distinguishing features of the trap area are the prevalence of long grass and the paucity of large trees, and the circumstance that almost all bushes and trees are deciduous. The black cotton soil found throughout this tract is believed to have been formed by the denudation of basalt rock, combined with the deposit of vegetable matter.

The Gondwāna formation.

The Gondwāna system corresponds to the marine older and middle mesozoic, and perhaps the upper palaeozoic formations of other countries, and is chiefly composed of sandstones and shales, which appear to have been deposited in fresh water and probably by rivers. As a general rule, these rocks occupy basin-shaped depressions in the older formations, which sometimes correspond to the existing river valleys. Remains of animals are rare, and the few which have hitherto been found

[1] From a note by Mr. Bose of the Geological Survey.

belong chiefly to the lower vertebrate classes of reptiles, amphibians, and fishes. Plant remains are more common, and evidence of several successive floras has been detected. The main areas of Gondwāna rocks in the Central Provinces are in the Sātpurā range, in the basin of the Godāvari in Nāgpur, Wardhā, and Chānda Districts, and in the Bilāspur *zamīndāris* and some of the Feudatory States. The formation is divided into the Upper and Lower Gondwānas, according to the character of the fossils found in them; and each of these is further subdivided into groups, several of which occur in the Central Provinces, but cannot be separately described. The sandstone of the Pachmarhī hills belongs to the Mahādeo group of Upper Gondwānas. The rocks consist chiefly of beds of coarse sandstone and conglomerate, marked with ferruginous bands and attaining a thickness of 10,000 feet. The sandstones form high ranges of hills and often weather into vertical scarps of great height, making conspicuous cliffs in the forest, and contrasting strongly with the black precipices of the Deccan trap, and the rounded irregular masses of the more granitoid metamorphic rocks. Scarcely any fossils have been found in these rocks. To the Gondwāna formation also belongs the Barākar group of the Dāmuda series, which furnishes the coal found in Korbā, the Tawā valley, Mohpāni, and the Wardhā valley.

The Vindhyan series.

Next in point of age is the Vindhyan series, which consists principally of sandstones, shales, and limestones, and is divided into the Upper and Lower Vindhyans. The Upper Vindhyan rocks in Saugor and Damoh are composed of hard red masses of sandstone, with alternations of shale. There is only one important band of limestone. Extensive stretches of Lower Vindhyan rocks occur in Raipur, Bilāspur, and Bastar; they are composed of quartzitic sandstone, superimposed by blue or purple limestone and shale. The Vindhyan rocks have not yielded any authenticated fossils, but it is improbable that their deposition was anterior to the existence of life.

Transition rocks.

The transition or sub-metamorphic formation is believed to be somewhat earlier than the Lower Vindhyans. Rocks belonging to this system, consisting of quartzite, hornstone breccia, and limestone, occur in the western portion of Hoshangābād near Handiā and on the Moran river. Low hills of cherty limestone and breccia are also seen in Narsinghpur, and some strata are exposed in Jubbulpore. Transition rocks underlying the surface strata cover a large area in the Districts of Mandlā, Bhandāra, Bālāghāt, Raipur, and Bilāspur.

Gneissic rocks.

Gneissic or metamorphic rocks, the oldest known formation, cover large portions of the plateau Districts, and in the Nāgpur and Chhattīsgarh plains underlie the more recent formations.

Botany[1]. Forest trees.

Where not under cultivation, the Central Provinces are characterized by a deciduous, sometimes scrubby forest, often mixed with heavy woody climbers. In the extreme south-east is a belt of moist evergreen forest. Teak (*Tectona grandis*) is found over most of the area, while *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) disappears in the western Districts. *Sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) and *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*) are the trees next in importance. The principal bamboo is *Dendrocalamus strictus*. The *tendū* or ebony (*Diospyros tomentosa*), Indian redwood (*Soymida febrifuga*), *giryā* or satin-wood (*Chloroxylon Swietenia*), *shīsham* or rosewood (*Dalbergia Sissoo*), and *kūmār* (*Gmelina arborea*) yield ornamental timbers. *Tūn* or red cedar (*Cedrela Toona*) is found wild and is also cultivated. Sandal-wood (*Santalum album*) is not indigenous, but one or two small plantations have been started in Government forest. The *semur* or cotton-tree (*Bombax malabaricum*) is common, the cotton surrounding the seeds being used to stuff quilts and cushions. The *harrā* (*Terminalia Chebula*) yields the myrabolams of commerce. Among trees conspicuous for their beautiful flowers may be mentioned the *amaltās* (*Cassia Fistula*), with long pendulous racemes of bright yellow resembling the laburnum; the *gangal* (*Cochlospermum Gossypium*), growing on the driest and stoniest slopes with large yellow flowers; the *kachnār* (*Bauhinia variegata*), with large blossoms of four white petals and one pink or variegated; and the *dhāk* or *palās* (*Butea frondosa*), a very common and useful tree in both the forests and the open country, remarkable for its brilliant scarlet orange inflorescence appearing when the tree is quite leafless. Other trees with conspicuous flowers are the *siris* (*Albizzia Lebbek*) with greenish yellow flowers, much cultivated in avenues and gardens; the graceful *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*) with yellow blooms; the shrub *sihāru* or *harsinghār* (*Nyctanthes Arbor-tristis*) with fragrant yellowish-white flowers used for garlands; the *kusumb* (*Schleichera trijuga*) with bright red leaves and flowers, appearing in the hot season; the *tinsā* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), with trifoliate leaves and pale rose-coloured flowers; and the shrub *dhūvi* (*Woodfordia floribunda*) with red flowers. Flowering herbaceous plants are few, and the most brilliant shows are found on the trees. Among

[1] From notes by the Director of the Botanical Survey, and Mr. Lowrie of the Forest department.

small trees or shrubs growing in scrub jungle may be mentioned the *achār* or *chironjī* (*Buchanania latifolia*), the graceful *aonla* (*Phyllanthus Emblica*), the *dhāmun* (*Grewia vestita*), and species of *Zizyphus*, *Flueggea*, *Gardenia*, *Carissa*, and *Wightia*. Among creepers the large *maul* (*Bauhinia Vahlii*) whose leaves are used for plates, and the *Butea superba*, with leaves and flowers resembling the *palās*, are perhaps the best known.

Of trees growing in the open country the most important and handsome is the *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*) with lofty spreading foliage, while the commonest is the *babūl* (*Acacia arabica*), which specially affects black cotton soils; others are the *reunjā* (*Acacia leucophlaea*), the *gūlar* (*Ficus glomerata*), the *karanj* (*Pongamia glabra*), and the *bhokar* (*Cordia Myxa*), with some of the trees already mentioned. Trees planted in the neighbourhood of villages are the fruit-bearing mango (*Mangifera indica*), *jāmun* (*Eugenia Jambolana*), tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*), wild plum (*Zizyphus Jujuba*), and *kavīt* or wood-apple (*Feronia Elephantum*), with the sacred banyan (*Ficus indica*), *pīpal* (*Ficus religiosa*), *bel* (*Aegle Marmelos*), and *nīm* (*Melia Azadirachta*). The bastard date-palm (*Phoenix sylvestris*) is common in some localities, growing along the banks of streams, while the palmyra palm (*Borassus flabellifer*) is also found in the south. Trees of the open country.

The best grazing grasses are the well-known *darbh* or *dūb* (*Cynodon dactylon*) sacred to Ganesh, which is scarce on black soils; *kel* or *kailā* (*Andropogon annulatus*); *musyāl* (*Iseilema Wightii*); *dhadhāra* (*Iseilema laxum*), the last two being sweet-scented when freshly cut; *gunariā* or *gunherī* (*Anthistiria scandens*), the high grass growing on the Baihar plateau; and *kusal* (*Pollinia argentea*), an excellent fodder grass when young. Among other grasses may be mentioned *babel* or *bhābar* (*Pollinia eriopoda*), used locally for rope-making and now largely employed in the manufacture of paper; *bharrū* (*Sorghum halepense*), from which reed-pens are made; the *khaskhas* grass (*Andropogon squarrosus*) and the well-known spear-grass (*Andropogon contortus*); *Andropogon Schoenanthus*, which yields the aromatic rūsa oil; *kāns* (*Saccharum spontaneum*), the grass which is such an enemy to the wheat cultivator; and *Panicum Crus-galli*, growing round tanks and called the gift of God, as its seeds are gathered and eaten by the poorer classes. Grasses.

Owing to the extent of its forests, the Province possesses a comparatively rich variety of wild animals. The wild Fauna[1].

[1] From notes by Dr. Quinn, Major Sutherland, I.M.S., Colonel Poynder, I.M.S., and Mr. Lowrie and Mr. Dunbar-Brander of the Forest department.

elephant is now found only in one or two of the eastern Feudatory States. The wild buffalo frequents the forests of the eastern and southern Districts, where the rainfall is heavy and swamps and marshes abound. In the rains he is an occasional visitor as far west as Mandlā. The bison (*Bos gaurus*) is found in the east and south, and also on the Sātpurā hills, preferring usually the higher summits and steep slopes. He is the largest ox in the world, but does not attain to so great a size in the Central Provinces as in Burma. Lions have long been extinct, but it is recorded that a specimen was shot in Saugor in 1851. Tigers and the large and small varieties of leopard occur all over the Province, while the hunting leopard (*Cynaelurus jubatus*) is found in some localities, but is very scarce. The Indian or sloth bear (*Melursus ursinus*) is common, and the wolf is found in small numbers in some Districts. Packs of wild dogs infest the forests and are very destructive to game. Wild hog are very numerous in both forests and open country. The principal deer are the *sāmbar* (*Cervus unicolor*) and *chītal* or spotted deer (*Cervus axis*), which haunt all the forests, the latter however only in the proximity of water. The *bārāsinghā* or swamp deer (*Cervus duvauceli*) is found in the *sāl* forests of Mandlā and the eastern Districts, those of the west being probably too dry for it. The hog deer (*Cervus porcinus*) is stated to be found in the eastern Districts, but this requires confirmation; and the rib-faced or barking-deer (*Cervulus muntjac*) and the mouse deer (*Tragulus meminna*) are comparatively common, the last animal however not being a true deer. Of antelopes, the *nīlgai* or 'blue bull' is found everywhere and the four-horned antelope (*Tetracerus quadricornis*) haunts scrub jungle; herds of 'black buck' roam across the black-soil plains of the trap country; *chinkāra* or ravine deer frequent rocky and waste ground in small parties.

Among game birds the following may be mentioned, though the list is by no means exhaustive. The great Indian bustard is met in the open country in small numbers, and the lesser florican is common in the northern Districts. Peafowl and red and grey jungle-fowl are numerous, especially in bamboo forests, and the brown and painted spur-fowl are found throughout the Province, the former in large numbers. Several varieties of plover, painted and common sand-grouse, painted and grey partridge, and the black partridge in Saugor, the large grey quail, bush quail, rain quail, and button quail, the blue rock and green pigeon, and the imperial pigeon in the south of Chānda are the other principal land game birds. Of water-

birds flocks of demoiselle crane frequent the vicinity of rivers in the cold season. Duck are numerous on the tanks of the rice Districts, and snipe in the marshy ground surrounding them. The grey and bar-headed geese visit the northern Districts in small numbers in the cold season, while the *nuktā* or black-backed goose is indigenous. The principal varieties of immigrant ducks are the shoveller, mallard, gadwall, and pintail, the red-crested, red-headed, and white-eyed pochards, the tufted or golden-eye, the smew or white-headed merganser, the widgeon, which is somewhat rare, and the common teal and blue-winged or garganey teal, while the bronze-capped teal is reported from Damoh. The ruddy sheldrake or Brāhmini and spot-billed duck and the whistling and cotton teal are indigenous. The pintail, fantail, jack, and painted snipe are all fairly common, the last being indigenous.

The principal river fish are the *mahseer* (*Barbus tor*), the *chilwā* (*Chela argentea*), the Indian trout (*Barilius bola*), the *gūnch* (*Bagarius yarrellii*), the Carnatic carp (*Barbus carnaticus*), the Indian gudgeon (*Gotis gyuris*) and the fresh-water shark (*Wallago attu*), which is common in both rivers and tanks. Of fish found principally in tanks the *rohū* (*Labeo rohita*), the *kalbans* (*Labeo calbasu*), the *murrel* (*Ophiocephalus striatus* and *gachua*), and the olive carp (*Barbus chrysopoma*) are the most important.

Climate and temperature.

As regards climate the Districts of the Central Provinces fall into two main divisions: Saugor and Damoh on the Vindhyan plateau, Jubbulpore at the head of the Narbadā valley, and Mandlā, Seonī, Betūl, and Chhindwāra on the Sātpurā uplands enjoying a distinctly lower average temperature than the rest of the Province. This difference is partly to be attributed to the greater elevation of these Districts, and also in the case of Saugor, Damoh, and Jubbulpore to the fact that they receive the westerly winds which blow across Northern India during most of the dry season, but which do not come south of the Sātpurā range. Taking Nāgpur and Jubbulpore as typical examples, the mean difference of temperature in favour of the latter reaches a maximum of 7° during January, February, and March. It falls to 6° in December, 5° in November, 4° in April and October, and 3° in May, while during the four months of the monsoon the variation is only about a degree. The main difference between the climates of the two places is in the cold season, when Jubbulpore has a considerably lower temperature, while in the summer the heat does not become oppressive until the middle of April, or a month later than in

Nāgpur. Jubbulpore and the Vindhyan and Sātpurā Districts all experience slight frosts which sometimes do considerable damage to the spring crops, but ice is seldom seen except in the interior of Mandlā and occasionally in other Districts of the Sātpurā plateau. Excluding those already mentioned, the climate of the remaining eleven Districts does not differ materially from that of Nāgpur, except that Narsinghpur and Hoshangābād in the Narbadā valley enjoy a lower temperature in the winter months, as they participate in the cold winds which are prevalent north of the Sātpurā range. The Chhattīsgarh Districts are very slightly cooler than Nāgpur. The mean temperature at Nāgpur in January is 70°, varying between 83° and 56°; in May 96°, varying between 109° and 82°; and in July 82°, varying between 88° and 75°. When the rains have properly set in, the mean temperature falls by 14°, and the fact that this season is not unpleasantly hot constitutes the great advantage of the climate. The variation in temperature is much lower during the rains than at any other season. The maximum shade temperature recorded in the Central Provinces is 119° at Chandā, and the minimum 30° at Pachmarhī.

Rainfall. The annual rainfall of the Province averages 47 inches, varying from 32 inches in Nimār to 62 in Bālāghāt. Pachmarhī with 77 inches is the station having the highest record. The mean for Chānda, Bhandāra, Bālāghāt, and the three Chhattīsgarh Districts, where rice is the principal crop, is 55 inches. Mandlā, Damoh, and the three Narbadā valley Districts receive 50 inches or more, and the other Districts under 50 inches. Of the annual Provincial total, 34 inches are received during the months of June, July, and August, more than 10 inches during September and October, and about 3 inches in the other seven months. The bulk of the rainfall is received from the Arabian Sea current of the south-west monsoon, but cyclonic storms advancing from the Bay of Bengal also give rain to the rice Districts in the east. The normal date of the breaking of the monsoon in the Central Provinces is June 10, while the rainfall caused by the advance of the south-west monsoon usually ceases in the second or third week of October. During November and December isolated falls are received from the retreating current of the south-west monsoon, but these are usually lighter in the Central Provinces than in Northern India. In January and February slight storms may occur advancing from the north-west, and are somewhat more frequent in the north than in the south of the Province. Any rain which may be received during the hot-weather months is as a rule due to

purely local conditions, masses of hot air being raised by the action of the wind to a sufficient height to produce condensation. About an inch of rain only is, as a rule, received during the hot season. During the last 36 years the average rainfall of the Province has five times been below 40 inches, but the harvests are dependent rather on a favourable distribution than on the total amount received. Hailstorms sometimes occur in the cold-weather months, particularly in the northern Districts.

Over great part of the Central Provinces the dawn of the epoch of authentic history may be placed at a period not much more than three centuries ago. To the people of Northern India it was known as Gondwāna, an unexplored country of inaccessible mountains and impenetrable forests, inhabited by the savage tribes of Gonds from whom it took its name. The Musalmān expeditions organized for the invasion of the Deccan thus ordinarily left the forests of Gondwāna to the east, and traversed the Narbadā valley through the pass commanded by the famous hill fort of Asīrgarh. But Gondwāna was not entirely outside the range of adventurous exploration in the early heroic ages of Hinduism. The Rāmāyana represents Rāmā as traversing the forest of Dandaka, extending from the Jumna to the Godāvari, on his way to the hermitage of Sutikshnā at Rāmtek near Nāgpur. In the course of centuries a number of Rājput principalities were established, and a considerable portion of the open country was subjected to their authority. Our knowledge of these is mainly derived from coins, a few inscriptions on copper or stone, the ruins of some ancient cities, and incidental statements in the ballads of Rājput annalists. The existence of one of Asoka's rock edicts at Rūpnāth in Jubbulpore proves that his empire embraced this portion of the Central Provinces. Inscriptions at Eran in Saugor District in the fourth and fifth centuries A.D. show that Eran and the surrounding country were included in the dominions of the great Gupta dynasty of MAGADHA, and shortly after fell under the rule of the White Hun Toramāna. From certain inscriptions found in Seonī and the Ajanta caves, it has been concluded that the Vākātaka dynasty was ruling over the Sātpurā plateau and the Nāgpur plain from the third century A.D., the name of the perhaps semi-mythical hero who founded it being given as Vindhyāsakti. The capital of these princes is supposed to have been at Bhāndak in Chānda, in ancient times a considerable town.

History. Early period.

A portion of the Nāgpur plain, comprising Nāgpur and Wardhā Districts, belonged to the old Hindu kingdom of Vidarbha (Berār), which was in existence during the second century B.C.; and these Districts subsequently passed successively to the Andhra dynasty of the Telugu country (A.D. 113) and the Rāshtrakūta Rājputs of the Deccan (A.D. 750–1087). In the north of the Province the Kalachuri or Chedi dynasty of Haihaya Rājputs ruled over the upper valley of the Narbadā, with their capital at Tripura or Karanbel, where the village of Tewar now stands near Jubbulpore. They used a special era in dating their inscriptions, which points to the establishment of their power in the third century A.D.; but nothing is known of the line before the ninth century, and it is last referred to in an inscription dated 1181. From the ninth to the twelfth centuries Saugor and Damoh were probably included in the territories of the Chandel Rājput princes of MAHOBĀ. At about the same period the present fortress of Asīrgarh was held by Chauhan Rājputs. The Paramāra kingdom of MĀLWĀ may have extended over the western part of the Narbadā valley between the eleventh and the thirteenth centuries; and an inscription found at Nāgpur and dated 1104–5 shows that at least one Paramāra king, Lakshman Deva, included the Nāgpur plain within the circle of his dominions. In Chhattīsgarh another Haihaya Rājput dynasty, perhaps akin to the rulers of Chedi, established itself at Ratanpur, and extended its authority over the greater part of the territory included in the present Districts of Raipur and Bilāspur.

The Gond kingdoms.

The inscriptions carry us down to the eleventh or twelfth century, after which there is a blank until the rise of the Gond powers in the fifteenth or sixteenth. The earliest Gond kingdom to emerge into prominence was that of Kherlā near Betūl. It first appears in 1398, when Narsingh Rai, Rājā of Kherlā, is said by Firishta to have had great wealth and power, being possessed of all the hills of Gondwāna and other countries. He took part in the wars between the Bahmani kings and those of Mālwā and Khāndesh. His territories were finally invaded by Hoshang Shāh, king of Mālwā, and Narsingh Rai was defeated and slain at the head of an army of 50,000 men, a large booty, including eighty-four elephants, falling to the victors. In the sixteenth century Sangrām Sāh, the forty-seventh Rājā of the Gond line of Garhā-Mandlā, issuing from the Mandlā highlands, extended his dominion over fifty-two *garhs* or districts, comprising Saugor, Damoh,

and possibly Bhopāl, the Narbadā valley, and Mandlā and Seonī on the Sātpurā highlands. The Mandlā dynasty is believed to have commenced about A.D. 664 with the accession of Jādho Rai, a Rājput adventurer, who entered the service of an old Gond chieftain, married his daughter, and succeeded him on the throne. But it remained a petty local chiefship until Sangrām Sāh's accession in 1480. About two hundred years after Sangrām Sāh's time, Bakht Buland, the chief of a Gond principality, with its head-quarters at Deogarh in Chhindwāra, proceeded to Delhi, and appreciating the advantages of the civilization which he there witnessed determined to set about the development of his own territories. To this end he invited Hindu artificers and husbandmen to settle in the plain country and founded the city of Nāgpur, to which his successor removed the capital. The Deogarh kingdom extended over the modern Districts of Betūl, Chhindwāra, Nāgpur, and portions of Seonī, Bhandāra, and Bālāghāt. In the south of the Province the walled town of Chānda was the seat of another dynasty which also came into prominence in the sixteenth century, when one of its princes, Bābāji Ballāl Shāh, is stated to have visited Delhi and to have held the position of an independent prince with an army of 1,000 cavalry and 40,000 infantry. The Chānda territories included most of that District and a portion at least of Berār, as their device of a winged lion has been found on the walls of Gāwīlgarh, a stronghold which controlled these lowlands. Thus for a certain period the simultaneous dominion of the three houses of Garhā-Mandlā, Deogarh, and Chānda united almost the whole of Gondwāna under the sway of aboriginal princes. Their subjection to the Mughal emperors was scarcely more than nominal. Though Garhā was included in the lists of Akbar's possessions as a subdivision of his *Sūbah* of Mālwā, its chiefs were practically so far from the ken of the Mughal court that except on occasions of disputed succession or other difficulties their history runs in a channel of its own, unaffected by the imperial policy. And the princes of Chānda and Deogarh, after their first submission to Delhi, seem to have been practically even more independent than their northern neighbour.

Limits of Muhammadan conquest.

Muhammadan conquest penetrated, however, to the north-western portion of the Province during the reign of Sangrām Sāh's successor, whose widow Durgāvati was defeated and killed by a Mughal general in 1564. A *Sūbah* was established at Handiā, which included the western part of Hoshangābād;

Saugor, Damoh, and Bhopāl were also occupied during the sixteenth century, and a fort and garrison were maintained at Dhāmoni in the north of Saugor. Nimār formed no part of Gondwāna, and had for the two preceding centuries been included in the Fārūki kingdom of Khāndesh, when in 1600 Akbar captured the fortress of Asīrgarh from the last of the Fārūki kings and annexed Khāndesh. At a later period when Berār also had become a Mughal province, Ashtī and Paunār in Wardhā and Kherlā in Betūl were the head-quarters of Muhammadan officers during the reign of Jahāngīr. The Mughal empire included therefore a strip along the western border of the Province, while the centre was occupied by the Gond kingdoms, and in Chhattīsgarh the old Haihaivansi Rājput dynasty remained in power.

Nature of the Gond kingdoms.

The outlying territories of the Gond Rājās seem to have been distributed among feudatory chiefs, paying a trifling revenue, but bound to attend upon the prince at his capital, with a stipulated number of troops, whenever their services were required. The princes, like the people, were of an easy, unambitious disposition, rarely seeking foreign conquests after their first establishment, and anxious only to stave off by concessions the evil day of dissolution. Under their uneventful sway, the country over which they ruled prospered, while with a liberal policy they invited Hindu immigrants from the north, and entrusted to them the reclamation of the rich land in the Narbadā valley and Nāgpur plain. The group of semi-barbaric chieftains and their retainers, who constituted the fighting strength of a Gond state, possessed only an insignificant power of resistance to anything approaching the character of an organized force. The existence of the Muhammadan empire probably contributed to their stability, the Mughal from his distant court at Agra being content with obtaining from the lords of these rugged hills the nominal submission which was sufficient to prevent any break in the continuity of his vast dominions. But when on the ruins of the empire arose the predatory Marāthā and Bundelā powers who knew no such forbearance, while at the same time the increased wealth of the country had made it worth coveting, the Gonds succumbed almost without a struggle.

The Marāthā conquest.

During the seventeenth century Chhatarsāl, the well-known Bundelā Rājput chief, wrested a part of the Vindhyan plateau and the Narbadā valley from the Mandlā territories, only himself to lose them shortly afterwards to a stronger power. The first invasion of Bundelkhand by the forces of the Peshwā

took place in 1733, and two years afterwards commenced the rule of the Marāthā Pandits of Saugor. In 1742 the Peshwā advanced to Mandlā and exacted the tribute of *chauth* or one-fourth of the revenue, amounting to four lakhs of rupees. From this time the Mandlā kingdom lay at the mercy of the Marāthās, by whom it was finally extinguished in 1781 after a duration of three centuries from the time of Sangrām Sāh. The fall of the Deogarh and Chānda kingdoms was even more rapid. On the death of Chānd Sultān, successor of Bakht Buland, in 1739, disputes as to the succession led to the intervention of Raghujī Bhonsla of Berār. In 1743 he established himself at Nāgpur, reducing the Gond king to the position of a nominal sovereign, and between that year and 1751 effected the conquest of the Deogarh territories, Chānda and Chhattīsgarh. Ratanpur, the capital of the Haihaivansi kingdom, had capitulated without a blow in 1741 on the advance of the Marāthā general Bhāskar Pant; and four years later, with the deposition of the last Rājā, a Rājput dynasty, whose annals go back almost to the commencement of the Christian era, ignominously ended. In 1740 Raghujī Bhonsla made a raid on the Carnatic, and immediately afterwards commenced a series of expeditions to Bengal, which terminated after a contest of ten years in the acquisition by the Marāthās of Cuttack and the promise of twelve lakhs annually from Alī Vardī Khān as the *chauth* of Bengal. Raghujī I died in 1755, and the Nāgpur kingdom continued to expand under his successors. By the concession of a nominal authority to the Gond Rājā of Deogarh, who conferred the *tīka* on the Bhonslas on their accession, and had the right of putting his seal to certain revenue papers, Raghujī had to his hand a pretext for disavowing, if expedient, the rights of the Peshwā as his overlord. In practice, however, reference was usually made to the Poona court in important matters, such as those affecting the succession; and in 1769 Jānojī, the son of Raghujī I, after being defeated by a combination of the Nizām and the Peshwā, was forced to acknowledge the latter's supremacy, and to agree to attend him in person with a contingent of six thousand men whenever called upon, besides paying an annual tribute of five lakhs. In 1785 the next Rājā, Mudhojī, obtained the cession of Mandlā and the upper Narbadā valley from the Poona court in return for a payment of 27 lakhs, and this was followed by the acquisition of Hoshangābād and the greater part of Saugor and Damoh in 1796–8.

The Nāgpur kingdom was now at its greatest extent. Under

The Nāgpur kingdom.

Raghujī II, Mudhojī's successor, it included practically the whole of the present Central Provinces and Berār, besides Orissa, and some of the Chotā Nāgpur States. The revenue of these territories was about a crore of rupees. Raghujī's army consisted of 18,000 horse and 25,000 infantry, of which 11,000 were regular battalions, besides 4,000 Arabs. His field artillery included about 90 pieces of ordnance. The military force was for the most part raised outside the limits of the State, the cavalry being recruited from Poona, while, besides the Arabs, adventurers from Northern India and Rājputāna were largely enlisted in the infantry. Up to 1803 the Marāthā administration was on the whole successful. The Bhonslas, at least the first four of them, were military chiefs with the habits of rough soldiers, connected by blood, and by constant familiar intercourse, with all their principal officers. Descended from the class of cultivators, they ever favoured and fostered that order, and though rapacious were seldom cruel to the people. Of Jānojī, the successor of Raghujī I, it is recorded that the king did not spare himself, being referred to in the smallest as well as the greatest matters of state; nor did any inconvenience or delay to the public service arise from this system, for even when not sitting actually in Darbār the Rājā was always accessible to any person who had business to propound to him.

Marāthā maladministration.

Up to 1803 the relations of the court of Nāgpur with the British had been generally friendly; but in that year Raghujī II was induced to join Sindhia in an alliance against them. The confederate chiefs were decisively defeated at Assaye and Argaon; and by the treaty of Deogaon Raghujī was obliged to cede Cuttack, Sambalpur, and a part of Berār, and to agree to the permanent appointment of a British Resident at his court. From this time Raghujī, nicknamed by his people the big Baniā, threw off all restraint in his unwillingness to show a reduced front to the world. Not only did he rackrent and screw the farming and cultivating classes, but he took advantage of the necessities which his own acts had created to lend them money at high interest. All revenue reports of those times teem with accounts of the cruel but ingenious processes by which the Marāthā collectors slowly bled the people.

Cessions to the British and escheat of the Nāgpur territories.

The period from 1803 to 1818 was perhaps the most disastrous through which the country has had to pass. On the death of Raghujī II in 1816, his son, an imbecile, was soon supplanted and murdered by the well-known Mudhojī, otherwise Appa Sāhib. A treaty of alliance for the maintenance of

a subsidiary force by the British was signed in this year. In 1817, on the outbreak of war between the British and the Peshwā, Appa Sāhib threw off his cloak of friendship, and accepted an embassy and title from the Peshwā. His troops attacked the British, but were decisively repulsed at SĪTĀBALDĪ, and subsequently compelled to evacuate Nāgpur. As a result of these battles, the remaining portion of Berār was ceded to the Nizām of Hyderābād and the territories in the Narbadā valley to the British. Appa Sāhib was reinstated on the throne, but shortly afterwards, intrigues being discovered, was deposed and forwarded towards Allahābād in custody. On the way, however, he made his escape and ultimately fled to the Punjab. A grandchild of Raghujī II was then placed on the throne, and the Nāgpur territories were administered by the Resident, Sir Richard Jenkins, from 1818 to 1830, in which year the young ruler known as Raghujī III was allowed to assume the actual government. During this period the restoration of internal tranquillity under a strong rule, and moderate taxation, gave the sorely harassed country an opportunity to recover, and it attained a fair measure of prosperity. For the next twenty years the methods of administration introduced by Sir Richard Jenkins were broadly adhered to, and the government was fairly successful. Raghujī III died in 1853, and his territories were then declared to have lapsed to the paramount power. The Nāgpur province, consisting of the present Nāgpur Division, with Chhindwāra and Chhattīsgarh, was administered by a Commissioner under the Government of India until the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861.

The Saugor and Nerbudda Territories.

Of the northern Districts, those parts of Saugor and Damoh which still belonged to the Peshwā were ceded by him in 1817, and the remainder, with Mandlā, Betūl, Seonī, and the Narbadā valley, were obtained from Appa Sāhib in 1818. In 1820 this area, with the designation of 'The Saugor and Nerbudda Territories,' was placed under the administration of an Agent to the Governor-General. On the constitution of the North-Western Provinces in 1835, the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories were included in them. In 1842 occurred the Bundelā rising, which originated in an attempt of two landholders in Saugor District to resist the execution of civil court decrees. They killed a number of police, and being joined by some Gond chiefs burnt and plundered several towns. Order was not restored until the following year, and in consequence of these disturbances, the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories were again placed under the political control of an Agent to the Governor-

General. This arrangement, however, was not found to be satisfactory, and they were restored to the North-Western Provinces in 1853. After the Mutiny the existence of these two isolated pieces of territory in the centre of India, too remote from the head-quarters of any Local Government to be efficiently administered, led to the determination to form a fresh Province, which was carried into effect in 1861.

The Mutiny. During the Mutiny of 1857 the northern Districts alone were seriously disturbed. The native regiments at Saugor rebelled, and that District and Damoh passed out of control, the British retaining only the fort and town of Saugor. The Jubbulpore regiment left the station in August, 1857; but a column of Madras troops from Kamptee arrived soon afterwards, and desultory operations were undertaken against the rebels in Jubbulpore and Saugor. Isolated disturbances occurred in Seonī, Mandlā, and the Narbadā valley. Sir Hugh Rose marched through Saugor early in 1858, took the forts of Rāhatgarh and Garhākotā, and defeated the insurgents in several engagements, after which order was rapidly restored. A rising had been concerted at Nāgpur by a regiment of irregular cavalry and the turbulent spirits in the city, but was defeated by the vigilance of the civil authorities, aided by Madras troops from Kamptee. Isolated disturbances occurred in the interior of Chānda, Raipur, and Sambalpur, but were soon put down.

Archaeology. The archaeology of the Province is comparatively unimportant. The remains of the archaic period consist of a number of stone circles and a few cromlechs found in Nāgpur and Chānda Districts, which are locally attributed to the Gaolīs. One edict of Asoka exists at Rūpnāth in Jubbulpore District, while four miles away at Tigwān is a temple resembling in plan and general construction that situated to the south of the great *stūpa* of Sānchi, and attributed to the third to fifth century A.D. The group of remains at Eran in Saugor District are of about the same age, but belong to the Gupta style, characterized by flat roofs, probably exemplifying the earliest period of architecture subsequent to the erection of porticoes outside rock-hewn caves. The extensive ruins at Sirpur in Raipur District also date from the same epoch, the temples found here being constructed of brick and being especially noticeable for the skill displayed in their moulding and ornament. The only Buddhist cave temple is at Bhāndak in Chānda, but it is not very ancient, and probably belongs to the declining period of Buddhism. The finest temples in the

Province belong to the period of A.D. 700 to 1200, designated as the mediaeval Brāhmanic. Good specimens of this style exist at Māndhāta, Mārkandī, Seorīnārāyan, and Bhoram Deo in the State of Kawardhā, and are distinguished for their size and richness of ornament. The class of temples called Hemādpanti (see BOMBAY PRESIDENCY), built of large slabs of stone without mortar, are of about the same period, and are found in several Districts. They are locally attributed to a magician called Hemādpant, who is said to have built several hundred temples in pursuance of a vow, in a single night, with the aid of demons. The period following the twelfth century and the era of the Muhammadan conquest is represented by few structures worthy of mention. A large number of modern temples are found in Ratanpur, mainly constructed of brick and showing strong signs of Muhammadan art, especially in the use of radiating domes and arches. Some beautiful temples have recently been erected in Nāgpur, Jubbulpore, and Hoshangābād, modelled on old patterns, but most of them following a hybrid style of architecture. Ancient and modern Jain temples are found in several localities in the northern Districts; the former are now almost all in ruins, but their sculptured fragments indicate that they were finely built. Of the modern temples the most important collection is at Kundalpur in Damoh, where there are more than fifty. The only remains of Muhammadan architecture of any value are at Burhānpur, and consist of two mosques belonging to the sixteenth century. They are plainly built, but produce a pleasing effect owing to the harmonious symmetry of their proportions. The Gonds have left only a few forts, palaces at Rāmnagar and Garhā of little or no architectural merit, the tombs of the kings of Chānda, which are plain and substantial buildings of heavy aspect, and the city walls of Chānda extending for a circuit of 5½ miles and presenting a very picturesque appearance. The other remains deserving mention are the massive forts built by the Marāthās, Bundelās, and other ruling dynasties in numerous localities, usually having inner and outer walls with large round towers at the corners and at intervals in the wall.

Population. Growth of population.

A general census of the Central Provinces has been held on five occasions—in 1866, 1872, 1881, 1891, and 1901. The population enumerated was just over 9 millions in 1866, and 9¼ millions in 1872. In both years the census was inaccurate in the remoter tracts, but the development of population was affected by the famine of 1869. In 1881 the population had

risen to $11\frac{1}{2}$ millions, an increase of 25 per cent. on 1872. During the decade the Province had been rapidly recovering from the effects of famine, the seasons being prosperous, and the only checks to the natural increment being epidemics of cholera and small-pox in 1872, 1878, and 1879. A considerable proportion of the increase must, however, be attributed to better enumeration. The population in 1891 was nearly 13 millions, showing an increase of 12 per cent. since 1881. The decade was on the whole prosperous, though marked towards the end by some seasons of slight scarcity and high prices culminating in a very unhealthy year in 1889. In 1901 the population was something less than 12 millions, equivalent to a decrease of 8·3 per cent. since 1891. This period was the most disastrous through which the Central Provinces have had to pass since the Marāthā Wars of the beginning of the century. In 1897 and 1900 occurred two famines of the first magnitude, occasioned by complete failures of both harvests, and affecting nearly the whole area of the Province. In four other years there were partial failures of crops, and in seven out of ten years severe epidemics of cholera. Of the decrease, which exceeded 800,000 persons, between an eighth and a quarter is probably due to emigration to Assam and other Provinces, and the remainder to the effect of these calamities, which the utmost efforts of the Administration could only partially obviate.

Distribution and density.

The population of the Province in 1901 was 11,873,029. Since the Census the greater portion of Sambalpur District with five Feudatory States has been transferred to Bengal, while five other Feudatory States have been received from that Province, and it is proposed to transfer part of Chānda District to Madras. The corrected total of population is thus 10,847,325. The British Districts contain 9,216,185 persons, or 85 per cent. of the total, and the Feudatory States 1,631,140, or 15 per cent. The density is 96 persons per square mile, being 112 in British Districts and 52 in the Feudatory States. The plain of Chhattīsgarh has the highest rural density in the Province with 170 persons, while some of the large *zamīndāri* estates in Chānda District contain only 10 persons to the square mile.

Towns and villages.

[1] The Province contains 40,339 inhabited towns and villages, including 55 places with a population of 5,000 persons and upwards. Only one of these, Nāgpur, has a population of more than 100,000; five, Jubbulpore, Saugor, Kamptee, Burhān-

[1] The figures in this paragraph have been corrected on account of the transfer of Sambalpur.

pur, and Raipur, have more than 20,000; and fifteen between 10,000 and 20,000. The urban population has increased since 1881 by 29 per cent. and now forms 8 per cent. of the total. Its increase may be attributed to the growth of factories and other urban industries, the expansion of rail-borne traffic, the spread of education, and with it the formation of a wealthy and educated class in native society who prefer town life. The average number of persons to a village is 269, which is equivalent to 54 houses at the ordinary rate of 5 persons to a house. The ordinary village is smaller in the Central Provinces than in any part of British India except Burma. The villages are large in open and well-cultivated areas, but small in tracts of hill and forest.

Age statistics.

The ages of the population in 1901 may be summarized as follows. About 26 per cent. were under 10 years old; 46 per cent. were under 20 years old; nearly 65 per cent. were under 30; nearly four-fifths under 40; and a little more than 4 per cent. were over 60. Some noticeable changes in the age constitution occurred between 1891 and 1901. In the former year the proportion of children under 10 was 30·7 per cent. of the whole population, as against 36·2 in the latter. The difference must be attributed to the decreased birth-rate and increased mortality of young children, which are the natural effects of bad seasons. On the other hand, at all the age periods between 10 and 40 there were larger numbers of persons in 1901, and the total percentage of population between these ages was 53·3, as against 48·5 in 1891 and 48·9 in 1881.

Vital statistics.

At the Census of 1901 the registration of vital statistics had not been extended to most of the *zamīndāri* estates in British territory, nor to the Feudatory States. The majority of the *zamīndāris* have since been brought under registration. The principal statistics of births and deaths are shown below:—

Year.	Population under registration.	Ratio of registered births per 1,000.	Ratio of registered deaths per 1,000.	Deaths per 1,000 from				
				Cholera.	Small-pox.	Fever.	Bowel complaints.	Plague.
1881 .	8,802,040	41·25	27·4	1·04	0·2	16·4	2·5	...
1891 .	9,501,401	39·99	32·98	2·24	0·08	20·06	2·19	...
1901 .	9,710,566	28·83	23·46	0·01	0·63	14·28	1·18	0·001
1904 .	9,770,567	52·64	30·61	0·08	0·18	14·27	1·14	3·36

The decennial birth-rate for the Province between 1881 and 1891 was 40·8, and between 1891 and 1901 35·7 per 1,000; the corresponding death-rates being 32·4 and 37·8 per 1,000. These rates are considerably below those deduced as normal for India in actuarial calculations based on the Census. But it may be noted that between 1881 and 1891 the population deduced from vital statistics differed from that shown in the Census by only 50,000. In 1901 the deduced population was greater that that enumerated in the Census by 450,000 persons. The difference may be partly accounted for by emigration, but is mainly due to deficient reporting of deaths in famine years. In the decade 1881–91 the highest average District birth-rate was 43·7 in Saugor, and the highest death-rate 39·1 in Narsinghpur. During the next ten years the highest birth-rate was 41·9 in Chhindwāra, and the highest death-rate 46·4 in Nimār.

Diseases. Of the total number of deaths registered in twenty years ending 1901 more than 60 per cent. were shown as being from fever, the rates for the two decades being nearly equal. Fever includes, however, a variety of diseases which are inaccurately diagnosed. Cholera accounted for 5 per cent. of the total number of deaths between 1881 and 1891, and for 7 per cent. between 1891 and 1901. Severe epidemics occurred in 1885, 1889, 1891, 1892, 1896, 1897, and 1900, in each of which years more than 20,000 deaths were reported from this disease. The highest number reported was 75,000 in 1900, when there was great scarcity of water. The most severe epidemics of small-pox were in 1889, when 17,500 deaths were reported, and in 1888 with 10,700 deaths. Epidemics have generally occurred at intervals of from three to five years, and have lasted for two years. Plague made its appearance in the Province in 1898, and in each succeeding year has caused a small number of deaths. But 1903 witnessed the first serious epidemic, when 35,000 deaths were reported from this disease, severe outbreaks having occurred in several of the large towns of the Province. A similar epidemic occurred in 1904. The first small and isolated outbreaks were detected at once, and successfully stamped out by segregation and disinfection of houses; but since the disease has fairly established a foothold in the Province, compulsory measures have been abandoned, as being at once violently opposed to the opinions of the people, and ineffectual to do more than slightly retard the progress of the disease. Infant mortality is usually severe in the Central Provinces, the deaths of children

under five years of age amounting to about 40 per cent. of the total.

Sex.

In 1901, 183,401 more females were enumerated than males, compared with an excess of 27,825 males in 1891. An examination of the statistics tends to show that women are constitutionally stronger and less liable to succumb to the effects of privation than men. A comparison of the variation in the proportion of the sexes with that of the increase and decrease of population in different units demonstrates that the largest increases in the proportion of women are generally found in those areas which have suffered most severely from famine.

Civil condition.

The distribution of the population by sex and civil condition in British Districts is as follows:—

Civil condition.	1891.			1901.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Unmarried	4,437,417	2,519,480	1,917,937	3,919,882	2,224,870	1,695,012
Married	5,311,265	2,639,229	2,672,036	4,751,856	2,324,326	2,427,530
Widowed	1,035,612	238,595	797,017	1,204,908	306,788	898,120
Total	10,784,294	5,397,304	5,386,990	9,876,646	4,855,984	5,020,662

In 1901, 47 per cent. of the males were unmarried, 47 per cent. married, and 6 per cent. widowed. Of females 35 per cent. were unmarried, 48 per cent. married, and 17 per cent. widowed. The percentages of married and widowed are much larger, and those of unmarried much smaller, than in any European country. The joint family system prevails throughout all grades of society in the Central Provinces, but the members now generally separate on the death of a single common ancester. Thus brothers live jointly during the lifetime of their father, but separate at his death, as far as household life is concerned, though trade or cultivation is frequently carried on jointly. The Mitāksharā law of inheritance is generally observed, but immigrants from other Provinces frequently adhere to their own law, the Marāthās especially following the Mahārāshtra school.

Age of marriage.

Of boys 21 per cent. are married under 15 years of age and more than 50 per cent. under 20. A tendency has arisen among the higher castes to postpone the marriage of boys until their education has been completed. The age of marriage of girls is much earlier than that of boys, and 11 per cent. are married under 10 years of age. Between 10 and 15, about half

the total number of Hindu girls are married, 20 per cent. of Animists, and 27 per cent. of Muhammadans. The majority of the remainder get married before 20. As a rule, no social stigma is incurred so long as a girl gets married before 12 or even a year or two older. Brāhmans and other high castes now frequently keep their girls unmarried until this age, because, as the bridegroom is older, it is natural to wish that the bride should if possible be somewhat nearer his age. The castes in which infant marriage is most prevalent are Baniās and the higher grade of cultivators, as well as Marāthā Brāhmans in the southern Districts. In some castes, families with a number of children occasionally celebrate two or three marriages at the same time in order to save expenditure; and on such occasions a baby six months old may be given in marriage. Instances occur in which children still in the womb are conditionally betrothed, provided they turn out to be of opposite sex. The actual age at which the marriage of girls under 12 is celebrated is of comparatively small importance, as they do not live with their husbands before they arrive at adolescence.

Marriage customs.

Marriages are always arranged by the families of the parties, except among some of the Dravidian tribes, where girls do not marry until they are adult, and are allowed to select their own husbands. In such cases unchastity before marriage is said to be not uncommon. The marriage ceremony is elaborate, and presents considerable variation among different classes of the population. The essential portion of it is usually that the couple walk seven times round a sacred pole erected in the middle of the temporary shed in which marriages are always held, the bridegroom usually following in the footsteps of the bride for the first four perambulations, and the bride in those of the bridegroom for the last three. Brāhmans perform the marriage ceremony of all the higher castes; but in the lower castes the *sowāsa* or the husband of either the bridegroom's sister or his paternal aunt officiates as priest, his wife also performing certain minor ceremonies. Among the Jains marriage is little more than a civil contract. The celebration of marriages is the leading event of Hindu social life, and the sums expended on both sides are usually equivalent to several months' income of the families.

Polygamy.

The returns of the Census of 1901 show 1,040 married women to every 1,000 married men. The vast majority of Hindus are content with a single wife, but except in the higher castes no special stigma attaches to the taking of a

second. To members of the cultivating castes it is frequently advantageous to marry two wives, as one woman will look after the house while the other works in the fields. The practice is common among such castes as Mālis, Kāchhis, and Kohlīs, who grow flowers, vegetables, sugar-cane, and other irrigated crops entailing much spade work. Among the primitive tribes a man will marry as many wives as he can afford to purchase and keep, and polygamy is in their case an indication of wealth. Widow-marriage is permitted except among a few of the higher castes. In many castes a considerable price has to be paid for a widow to her father's family. The custom of the levirate, by which the younger brother takes the widow of his elder brother to wife, is usually optional, but not binding on the woman in the Central Provinces.

Divorce. Regular divorce is allowed among all except those castes which do not permit widow-marriage. In their case if a woman commits adultery she is finally expelled from her caste, and the husband is free to marry again. Divorce is usually permissible on the initiative of the wife only on the ground of the cruelty or impotence of the husband; but a husband may divorce his wife for any serious fault, such as adultery, incurable disease, culpable disobedience, or extravagance. If a married woman elopes with another man, he is required to repay to the husband the expenditure incurred by him on his wedding, and the divorce is then complete. Resort to the criminal law is unusual unless he refuses to do this, or is a personal enemy.

Language. The diversity of the ethnical constitution of the Province can best be illustrated by a consideration of the statistics of language. The Bundelī dialect of Western Hindī is spoken on the Vindhyan plateau, in the lower Narbadā valley, and in Seonī and Chhindwāra, indicating that the population of this area immigrated from the north-west through Bundelkhand. The Baghelī dialect of Eastern Hindī is the vernacular of Jubbulpore and Mandlā; and this fact may perhaps be taken to show a separate wave of immigration from Oudh or the territories adjoining it, possibly at a much earlier date, and during the predominance of the Chedi dynasty of Jubbulpore already alluded to. Chhattīsgarhi is, as its name implies, a special dialect of Hindī spoken throughout Chhattīsgarh, and akin to the Oudh dialect. Its development probably dates from the rise into power of the Haihaivansi dynasty of Ratanpur. In Betūl, Nimār, and part of Hoshangābād the local speech is the Mālwī dialect of Rājputāna, these areas having been colonized by settlers from Central India, probably in the

fifteenth century with the invasion of Hoshang Shāh of Mālwā. Of the whole population 15 per cent. speak Bundelī, 10 per cent. Baghelī, 27 per cent. Chhattīsgarhi, and 5 per cent. Rājasthāni. If all these languages are grouped as Hindī, together with Urdū (130,415) and some minor dialects, then 6,782,200 persons, or 63 per cent. of the population, are Hindī speakers. Marāthī is the main vernacular of four Districts, Wardhā, Nāgpur, Chānda, and Bhandāra, and is also largely spoken in the southern *tahsīls* of Nimār, Betūl, Chhindwāra, and Bālāghāt. It is the language of 2,200,000 persons, or 20 per cent. of the population. Its distribution indicates the extent to which the country was colonized by immigration from the Deccan and Berār under the Bhonsla dynasty. Oriyā was spoken by 1,600,000 persons, or 13½ per cent. of the population, in 1901, but the transfer of Sambalpur and the adjoining Feudatory States to Bengal has reduced this figure to 292,000. Rather more than 100,000 persons, mainly in the south of Chānda District, spoke Telugu in 1901. The cession of three *tāluks* of Sironchā to Madras will diminish this number by nearly one-fifth. The only other languages of any importance are those of the primitive Dravidian or Mundā tribes. They are now represented by 1,100,000 speakers, or rather more than 9 per cent. of the population. Of these nearly 900,000 speak Gondī and 60,000 Korkū. The numbers returned as speaking these languages represent only 40 per cent. of the total numbers of the tribes, and this fact indicates the extent to which they have abandoned their own speech and adopted the Aryan vernaculars current around them. The following table shows the languages spoken in British Districts in 1891 and 1901 :—

Languages spoken.		1891. Number of persons.	1901. Number of persons.
Chief vernaculars of the Province	Hindī	6,702,023	6,111,016
	Marāthī	2,118,014	2,106,872
	Oriyā	685,971	702,635
	Telugu	101,311	93,856
Dravidian dialects		1,007,004	730,097
Mundā dialects		101,750	74,305
Gipsy dialects		23,913	20,210
Other Asiatic languages		36,596	29,664
Non-Asiatic languages		7,112	7,991
	Total	10,784,[illegible]94	9,876,646

Castes and tribes.

The Province has received successive waves of immigration from the territories adjoining it on all sides. In many castes

endogamous divisions have grown up, separating the older and newer immigrants. Social position is here in inverse ratio to length of residence in the country, the earlier immigrants being suspected, probably with justice, of interbreeding with the non-Aryan tribes. Among the castes of high social rank, the minority only, and in the case of Rājputs an infinitesimal minority, are regarded as equals by their fellows at home. The population of the Central Provinces is in fact, as social institutions go in India, a new community, and like most new communities its pedigree will not stand too close a scrutiny. As in other agricultural countries, the possession of the land has until recently been the main factor in the determination of social position; and it is remarkable how closely the position of castes as landholders corresponds with their social gradation, and how extensively the ownership of property is concentrated in the higher castes. Brāhmans, Rājputs, Baniās, and Kāyasths are the chief landholders. Brāhmans number nearly 400,000, Rājputs 350,000, Baniās 130,000, and Kāyasths 29,000. Of the cultivating castes Ahīrs form nearly 8 per cent. of the population, Kunbīs 4 per cent., Kurmīs 2½ per cent., and Lodhīs 2½ per cent. A large proportion of Ahīrs have abandoned their traditional occupation of tending cattle and taken to agriculture. Among other castes may be mentioned Marāthās, Kohlīs, Gūjars, Dāngis, and Kirārs. The Marāthās, Dāngis, and Lodhīs were formerly ruling castes. Mālis and Kāchhīs, the market gardeners of the community, form nearly 4 per cent. of the population. Two other castes may be mentioned as considerable landowners—Telis or oil-pressers and Kalārs or liquor-sellers, with about 750 villages each. These castes were frequently money-lenders to the Gonds, before the arrival of the Baniās, and have thus acquired their property. The Telis constitute 6 per cent. of the population, but the large majority have abandoned their hereditary occupation and now engage in agriculture or trade. The aboriginal or forest tribes still form nearly a quarter of the whole population, being most numerous in the Sātpurā Districts and the large *zamīndāri* estates and Feudatory chiefships in the east of the Province. Some of them are large proprietors, as the Gonds, Kawars, and Binjhāls. These are mainly comprised in the *zamīndāri* estates held on an impartible and inalienable tenure, but for which fact they would by this time have passed into the hands of money-lenders, as the *zamīndārs* are generally ignorant and improvident. The GONDS number nearly 2,000,000 persons, the KHONDS 168,000, the Kawars 123,000, the BAIGĀS (including

Binjhwārs) nearly 100,000, and the KORKŪS 100,000. The impure castes form about a fifth of the total, and are generally the poorest and most depressed class, engaged in labour and weaving country cloth. But the Chamārs (740,000) own a few villages in Chhattīsgarh and the Mahārs (620,000) a few in the Nāgpur country, while the Chhattīsgarhi Chamārs are also largely tenants.

Religions. The following table gives the leading statistics of religion for the population of British Districts :—

	1891.	1901.
	Number of persons.	Number of persons.
Hindus	8,831,199	8,171,211
Animists	1,592,149	1,335,573
Musalmāns	297,604	295,291
Jains	48,644	47,306
Christians	12,979	24,809
Others	1,719	2,456
Total	10,784,294	9,876,646

Of the total population of the Province, 9¾ millions or 82 per cent. are Hindus, and 1¾ millions or 14½ per cent. Animists. Of the balance, Muhammadans number about 300,000 or 2½ per cent., Jains 48,000, and Christians 26,000. Pārsīs, Jews, Sikhs, and the members of the Arya Samāj number, severally, a few hundred persons or less. The Hinduism of the Central Provinces is largely tinctured by nature and animal worship and by the veneration of deified human beings. Even in the more advanced Districts there are usually a number of village gods, for the worship of whom a special priest belonging to the primitive tribes called Bhumkā or Baigā is supported by contributions from the villagers. Khermāta, the goddess of the earth or the village, Marhai Devī, the goddess of cholera, Sītalā Devī, the goddess of small-pox, Nāgdeo, the cobra, Bhainsā Sur, the buffalo, Dulhā Deo, a young bridegroom who was killed by a tiger, Hardaul, a young Rājput prince who was poisoned by his brother on suspicion of loving his wife, and Bhilat, a deified cowherd, are the most common of these. Of the sects of Hinduism, only the Kabīrpanthīs and Satnāmis need be mentioned; they represent respectively the revolt of the depressed castes of Gāndas or weavers and Chamārs or tanners against the tyranny of Brāhmanism and the caste system. Both started with the

fundamental ideals of the equality of all men, the abolition of caste, and the worship of one supreme God who required no idols or temples and therefore no Brāhmans; but whereas the Kabīrpanthīs now admit caste and are thus scarcely to be distinguished from an ordinary Hindu sect, the Satnāmis are still militant and have carried their opposition to the Hindu social system into their relations as tenants by refusing to pay rent to their Hindu landlords.

Of the Christians, 4,920 are Europeans, 2,304 Eurasians, and 18,367 native Christians. The numbers of the latter have nearly trebled since 1891 as the result of missionary enterprise, the increase being partly due to the adoption of famine orphans. Missionary stations of various denominations exist in all Districts and some of the Feudatory States. The principal bodies are the unsectarian American Mission known as the Disciples of Christ, who carry on work in Damoh, Bilāspur, and elsewhere; the United Free Church Mission in Nāgpur, Bhandāra, and Wardhā; the Church of England Zanāna Missions in Nāgpur and Jubbulpore, and the Church Missionary Society in Mandlā; the Mission of the Friends Society at Hoshangābād; the German Evangelical Mission in Raipur; the Swedish Lutheran Mission in Betūl and Chhindwāra; the Methodist Mission in Bālāghāt; and the work of the Roman Catholic Church in Nāgpur, Kamptee, Jubbulpore, Pachmarhī, and Khandwā. The Central Provinces belong to the Anglican diocese of Nāgpur, which embraces also Berār, Central India, and Rājputāna. The greater part of the Province forms the Roman Catholic diocese of Nāgpur, but portions of it are included in those of Allahābād, Calcutta, and Vizagapatam, while the Nāgpur diocese comprises also Berār and Hyderābād north of the Godāvari. Christians.

The Province is essentially agricultural, and the recent development of mining and factory industries, though important, has as yet exercised no appreciable effect on the returns of occupation. About 70 per cent. of the whole population are shown as supported by agriculture, while if to these are added more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. engaged in the training and care of animals, nearly all of whom are herdsmen, and nearly 3 per cent. dependent on general labour, the greater part of whom subsist mainly by agricultural labour, the proportion rises above 75 per cent. Of the agricultural population, tenants are the most important class, numbering over 4,000,000, while nearly 250,000 persons are landed proprietors. Labourers, including herdsmen, farm-servants, field and general labourers, number Occupations.

3,000,000. Nearly 300,000 persons, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the population, are engaged in service, principally as barbers, indoor servants, washermen, water-carriers, and sweepers. About 600,000, or 5 per cent., manufacture, collect, and sell articles of food and drink, principally milk and butter, fish, flour, vegetable oil for food, grain, vegetables and fruits, betel-leaf, salt, and tobacco. This includes the very poor classes who grind flour, parch gram, and husk rice, numbering about 90,000 persons. Nearly 120,000 persons are engaged in retailing head-loads of grass, fuel, and cow-dung cakes. The cotton industry supports 400,000 persons, or about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the population. Workers in gold and silver are a fairly important class, numbering 60,000, and workers in iron and steel number 100,000. These last are principally the village blacksmiths, who make and mend agricultural implements. About 66,000 persons are engaged in religious services, the majority of whom are supported by charity; and 137,000 are beggars.

Food. Ordinarily only two meals are eaten, the first about midday and the second in the evening at 7 or 8 p.m. But cultivators who have to work in the fields require some food in the early morning before going out. This usually consists of the remains of the previous evening meal eaten cold. The midday and evening meals are ordinarily of the same character, consisting of the staple food-grains, which are now mainly rice and *jowār*. Rice is boiled in water with salt and eaten with the various pulses, *mūng*, *urad*, *arhar*, and *tiurā*, which are split and boiled in water. Vegetables and chillies are added when available, large quantities of the latter being consumed. Hot *ghī* or oil of sesamum is often added to vegetables and pulses after they have been cooked, while powdered turmeric is always mixed with pulses, and is supposed to neutralize the bad effects of the organic matter frequently contained in the water. *Gullī* or *mahuā* oil and linseed oil are other substitutes for *ghī*. Occasionally rice is boiled in butter-milk as a delicacy. *Kodon* and *kutkī* are cooked and eaten in the same manner as rice by those who cannot afford that grain. Where rice is not the staple food, *chapātis* or thin unleavened cakes of ground wheat, gram, or *jowār* are usually substituted for it. Vegetables and pulses are eaten with the *chapātis*. On feast days cakes of wheat and gram are fried in *ghī*. Butter-milk is often drunk in the evenings. *Pān*, betel-leaf and betel-nut, is chewed after the midday meal by all classes in the Marāthā country, and by those who are well-to-do elsewhere. Nearly every one smokes, *bīrīs* or cigarettes rolled in leaves and *chongīs* or leaf

pipes being common in the south and east, and *chilams* or clay pipe-bowls without a mouth-piece elsewhere. Most castes will eat flesh, other than that of the unclean or sacred animals, but can rarely afford it.

Clothes.

Nearly all articles of dress are made of cotton cloth. The products of Indian and English mills have almost entirely ousted the old hand-woven cloth in towns, and are rapidly doing so in the country. Except the very poorest classes, every one has a pair of *dhotīs* or loin-cloths which he changes daily, usually taking his bath in the one worn from the day before, and then changing it for the clean one. For the upper part of the body the garments used are a loose shirt, buttoning at the throat, or a short coat reaching to the waist, with a flap folding over in front where it is tied with strings. The long coat made with double flaps folding over the chest, and reaching down to the knees, which was formerly the universal full dress, is now going out of fashion. In the northern Districts in the cold weather coats are stuffed with cotton for warmth. The poorer cultivators and labourers frequently leave the upper part of their body bare. Among the educated classes, especially Government servants of all grades, coats cut after the English fashion and made of serge, wool, or *tasar* silk are largely worn. The higher classes now wear also long white trousers instead of loin-cloths, in imitation of the English. The old head-dress was the *pagrī*, formed from a piece of narrow cloth, sometimes 150 to 200 feet long, and twisted into innumerable folds. This is being rapidly ousted by the *dupatta*, or short cloth folded simply by the wearer himself, and formed of *tasar* silk, soft Madras cloth, or nainsook. In Chhattīsgarh the cultivators usually go bareheaded; but in the rest of the Province a man will not be seen outside the house with his head bare, though with the poorer classes any wisp of cloth answers the purpose of a head-covering. Women generally wear a *sārī* or a piece of cloth 18 to 24 feet long by 3 feet broad, secured round the waist and drawn over the shoulders and head. It is usually of hand-woven cloth, dyed red, blue, or green, and with various patterns stamped on it in other colours. English chintzes are also now worn. In the northern Districts the old fashion was to wear a *lahengā*, or skirt, a second cloth being used to cover the head and upper part of the body; but the *sārī* is now supplanting the skirt. Under the *sarī* is worn a *cholī*, a short sleeveless jacket buttoning tightly at the breast or back. In the house only a short cloth folding round the loins and pulled over the shoulders is

worn. Men generally wear white clothes over the body, except in the case of coats, which are of some dark or neutral colour. Shoes are commonly worn, but in the rice Districts they cannot be worn in the fields. In Chhattīsgarh sandals are used for road-work. Women, except of the labouring class, do not usually wear anything on their feet.

Dwellings. The houses of landowners stand in an enclosed courtyard, 90 to 120 feet long and 40 to 60 feet wide, surrounded by a brick wall. The front entrance gate is in the narrower side, and is often roofed in, with side rooms forming the *dalān* or hall for the reception of guests. Above it is a loft in which agricultural implements are kept. Along the sides of the yard are sheds for cattle or grain, and at the back is the dwelling-house, extending along the length of the enclosing wall, and about 15 feet wide. It has front and sometimes back verandas, is divided into rooms, and may be double-storeyed. Frequently a bamboo fence takes the place of the enclosing wall, and the house itself may be of matting plastered with earth. An ordinary cultivator has a similar house without the enclosure or sheds, and a poor cultivator only a two-roomed house with a front veranda. Cattle are frequently kept in one of the rooms. Large oval receptacles of matting covered with earth for holding grain are constructed inside the house. Chimneys are unknown, and smoke escapes through the tiles or thatch. In the more advanced Districts tiled roofs have now become the rule. The furniture consists only of a bed or wooden cot for each member of the family, their bedding, and the cooking and eating vessels. Substantial cultivators have these of brass or bell-metal, and poorer ones of earthenware. The better-class landowners have low wooden stools about six inches high for sitting on, but no chairs, tables, or carpets. The walls are whitewashed twice a year, at the Dewāli and Holī festivals, and the floor is plastered with cowdung and water once a week.

Disposal of dead. The majority of Hindus burn their dead, but certain castes bury them. Devotees, such as Gosains, Jangamas, Lingāyats, and others, bury their dead in the sitting posture employed during lifetime for meditating on the deity. Children dying before marriage or investiture with the sacred thread, persons dying of small-pox, cholera, and leprosy, or by an accident, or killed by wild beasts, and pregnant women and women dying in childbirth are buried among certain castes. The forest tribes and some of the poorer castes of Hindus also usually bury their dead, because it is less expensive than cremation. Occasionally when bodies are buried, the bones

are subsequently dug up and carried to a sacred river. The Muhammadans always bury their dead. Subject to the exceptions already mentioned, the general rule among Hindus is to burn the dead, the ashes being thrown into a river or tank.

Amusements.

Hindu children have much the same amusements as English ones, so far as their means permit. Dolls are made of clay and cloth, and occasionally their marriages are celebrated with feasts and fireworks. Swinging and walking on stilts are the pastimes of the month of Shrāwan (July–August), the idea being that the crops will grow as high as the stilts or swing. Kite-flying is a favourite amusement with old and young in the open season. All classes gamble at the Dewāli festival, playing at different games. Many different kinds of dances are practised. The Ahīrs have a stick dance at the Dewāli, and the primitive tribes dance among themselves on festive occasions. Professional singing and dancing girls in towns are generally Muhammadans, and in villages belong to the castes of Bernī and Kolābhuti; these girls will sometimes dance at the Holī for eighteen hours consecutively, being sustained by large quantities of liquor. Representations of the history of Rāma are given before the Dasahra festival, and occasionally the villagers have rude performances of their own, while professional dramatic and circus companies travel about. The villagers sometimes sing together in the evenings, and recitations of the sacred books are held at the houses of well-to-do persons. There are professional castes of acrobats and rope-dancers, snake-charmers, animal-tamers, jugglers, and clowns. Wrestling competitions are held on the Nāg Panchmī or snake-festival, perhaps because the movements of the wrestler resemble the convolutions of a snake. Cock-fighting and ram-fighting are practised in certain Districts, and cattle-races are held in the Nāgpur country.

Festivals.

The ordinary festivals are observed. The Holī corresponds to the European Carnival, and is a festival of spring. The next great festival is the Nāg Panchmī, when the cobra is worshipped, and after it the Rakshābandhan, when the sacred threads are changed. This is the great festival of the Brāhmans. Next comes Polā in the month of Bhādon (August–September), which in some respects resembles a feast of atonement; the villages and all houses are cleaned and the sweepings thrown outside the boundary. Cattle-races are also held. The first fifteen days of Kuār (September–October) are called Pitrpaksh, and during them every one pours libations in memory of his

ancestors, while crows, representing the spirits of the deceased, are fed. At the Dasahra a buffalo is sometimes slaughtered in honour of Devī, and the people go out into the fields to see the *nīlkanth*, or blue jay, a very auspicious bird. Twenty days after the Dasahra comes the Dewāli, the special festival of the Baniās, on which they worship a rupee and their account books. The Hindu commercial year begins from this day. All classes light lamps in their houses so as not to be overlooked when Lakshmī, the goddess of wealth, passes over them during the night and bestows her gifts. On the Til-Sankrānt, in January, the sun commences its course from the southern towards the northern hemisphere, and at the instant that this happens it is a meritorious act to dive beneath the water of a sacred river. Fairs are consequently held at all convenient places for this purpose.

Names and titles.

Hindus of the higher castes have two names, one for ceremonial and the other for ordinary use. The ceremonial name is the real one, but superstition prevents it being used in ordinary life, and a *chaltū* or current name is employed instead. These names fall into several categories. Many are those of gods and goddesses and sacred towns and rivers; a few are the names of jewels; others are taken from the day of the week on which the bearer was born, or from the date of the month, or the month itself or season; some denote the place of birth, and others are given to avert ill luck. Surnames exist only in the case of Marāthās.

Agriculture. Soils.

Roughly speaking, four distinct kinds of agricultural land are found in the Province. The first is the heavy black soil which covers the Narbadā valley and the open and level portions of the Vindhyan and Sātpurā plateaux. It is either alluvial, formed by the deposit of decayed vegetable matter, through the agency of rivers and streams, or has resulted from the decomposition of trap or basalt rock, or from a combination of both agents. This land is suited to the growth of wheat, linseed, gram, and other cold-weather crops which are dependent on the moisture remaining in the ground from the monsoon rainfall, and on the showers received during the months of December and January. Water is usually found only at a great depth from the surface, and irrigation is consequently little resorted to. Embankments to save erosion and hold up water, and careful tillage, are the main requisites for cultivation. The second class of land consists of shallow black soil, lying in a thin sheet over the surface of the basaltic rock from which it has been decomposed. Land of this

description predominates in Nimār, Wardhā, the west of Nāgpur, and the south of Chhindwāra. It is suited for the growth of cotton, *jowār*, and other autumn crops requiring only the light rainfall which these tracts obtain. The soil responds readily to manure, and the application of industry largely increases the out-turn. The third class of land includes the light sandy and stony uplands of the Vindhyan and Sātpurā ranges and the hilly country in the south, where the soil is either very shallow or contains a large proportion of gravel mixed with boulders. Lands of this description are the poorest in the Province; they require long resting fallows, and the cheap millets which they produce, constituting the main food-grain of the aboriginal cultivators who raise them, are entirely dependent on the rainfall of August and September. The last kind of land consists of yellow and sandy soil, formed from metamorphic or crystalline rock. This is the principal feature of the Waingangā and Mahānadī basins, including the south of Bālāghāt, Bhandāra, and Chānda, and the three Chhattīsgarh Districts, which form the rice lands of the Province. The rainfall is heavy, and the land, though of little natural fertility, responds readily to manure and irrigation.

Statistics of cultivation.

Agricultural statistics are not compiled for the Feudatory States, which cover 29,435 square miles or 25½ per cent. of the Provincial area, nor for about 8,000 square miles of the most sparsely populated tracts in the *zamīndāris* where the quantity of cultivated land is so small that it is not worth while to undertake a cadastral survey. Excluding these, in 1903–4, 17,213 square miles or 22 per cent. of the remaining area were included in Government forests, 6,980 square miles or 9 per cent. were classed as not available for cultivation, and 19,368 square miles or 24½ per cent. as cultivable waste other than fallow. The remaining area, amounting to 35,000 square miles, equivalent to 45 per cent. of the total land available, or 57 per cent. excluding Government forests, was occupied for cultivation. In the most advanced Districts cultivation is very close, reaching in some tracts to 80 per cent. of the whole area available after the exclusion of 'reserved' forests. And though 23,000 square miles are shown in the returns as cultivable waste, this consists mainly of hilly or rocky ground, which it would not be profitable to cultivate, and which should indeed, in the interests of the country, rather remain under jungle or grass than be cleared for the intermittent production of poor rains crops of millet. Considerable quantities of cultivable land must, however, still be available in the *zamīndāris* and

Feudatory States. And there can be no question that the produce of the present area could be immensely increased by better and closer cultivation, quite apart from what is generally called high farming.

Fallows. Out of the total occupied area of 35,000 square miles, about 8,200 square miles are under old and new fallow. Resting fallows are rarely given to good rice and wheat land so long as the resources of the cultivator are sufficient to till them, but much land has lain fallow in recent years owing to the bad seasons and the inroads of *kāns* grass (*Saccharum spontaneum*) in black soil fields. Frequent resting fallows are necessary for the poor soils of the Vindhyan and Sātpurā plateau. Here from 25 to 30 per cent. of the occupied area is normally left untilled, while in the rice country of Chhattīsgarh the proportion is only 20 per cent., and in the closely cultivated cotton-*jowār* country of Nāgpur and Wardhā it sinks to 13 per cent. The present area of fallow is from 1,600 to 2,300 square miles in excess of the normal.

Progress of cropping. The net cropped area amounts to over 27,000 square miles, having risen from 19,500 square miles since 1867–8. It expanded continuously up to 1893, but the unfavourable seasons since that date caused it to shrink in 1899–1900 to 2,100 square miles short of the normal. The figures for 1903–4 show that the area cropped in the *mālguzāri* tracts was still 300 square miles less than in 1892–3.

Double crops. Second crops were grown on about 2,400 square miles in 1903–4, this being the maximum figure recorded up to the present in favourable years. The double-cropped area varies very largely, according as the autumn rain is sufficient or inadequate. The usual method of double cropping is to scatter the seed of the pulses, *urad*, *mūng*, or *tiurā*, and sometimes gram and linseed, in the wet rice-fields either when the rice is nearly ripe for harvest or just after it has been cut. In the northern Districts a catch crop of rice is sown in the embanked wheat-fields during the rains.

Statistics of crops. Including double crops, the gross cropped area is now nearly 29,500 square miles. Out of this, about 19,000 square miles are devoted to autumn crops or those sown during the rainy season and reaped at or after its close, and 10,400 to spring crops sown in the damp ground after the rains and reaped towards the end of the cold season. In recent years the popularity of the spring crops has greatly decreased, owing to the number of occasions when the monsoon has failed prematurely and the ground has become too dry to be sown, and

over 3,200 square miles have been transferred to autumn crops since 1892–3. Of the total cropped area, about 18,000 square miles are occupied by the four main food-grains, rice, wheat, *jowār*, and *kodon* and *kutkī*; 900 by other cereals; nearly 4,400 by pulses, the most important of which is gram; 3,350 by oil-seeds, mainly linseed and *til*; over 3,300 by fibres, practically all of which is cotton; 2,200 by grass and fodder crops; and 230 square miles by fruits, vegetables, and spices.

Rice (*Oryza sativa*) is the most important crop in the Province, covering about 7,000 square miles in 1903–4, or 24 per cent. of the cropped area. Excluding the *zamīndāris*, its acreage is now nearly 2 per cent. less than in 1892–3. A maximum area of 7,800 square miles was recorded in 1895–6. Rice is sown as soon as the rains have well broken, or towards the end of June, and the harvest lasts from September 15 to December 15 according to the different varieties and the different soils. The varieties of rice are extremely numerous, and are broadly divided into light rice sown on uplands, medium on level ground, and heavy rice in low-lying and irrigated fields. The light varieties are reaped first and the heavy ones last. As the crop requires water to be standing in the fields during a considerable period of its growth, rice is always cultivated in embanked fields. And as the fields must be quite level in order that their surface may be covered, wherever the country is at all undulating they are extremely small, as many as fifty sometimes going to an acre. Rice is grown year after year without rotation, and manure is necessary to keep up the productive capacity of the fields. The crop is not largely irrigated, except in the Waingangā valley and Sambalpur. Rice can scarcely be damaged by excessive rain unless it is washed out of the ground. In years of short rainfall, besides being liable to wither, it is attacked by grasshoppers. The average amount of seed sown to an acre is 100 lb., and the standard out-turn for the Province is 1,100 lb. or eleven-fold, giving 670 lb. of husked rice. Rice.

Wheat (*Triticum sativum*) covered nearly 4,600 square miles, or $15\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the cropped area, in 1903–4. The area has decreased from 6,700 square miles since 1893, and wheat has been largely supplanted by *jowār*, and also, in the south, by cotton. Sowing commences towards the end of October, when the rains have stopped, and lasts through November and in embanked fields into December. The harvest is gathered from the beginning of March to the middle of April, being perhaps a fortnight earlier in the southern than the northern Wheat.

Districts. Wheat is very seldom manured, as the advantages obtained are not so great as in the case of the autumn crops, and in the black soil of the northern Districts it is grown year after year without manure or rotation. It is frequently sown mixed with a proportion of 5 to 25 per cent. of gram, which is advantageous to the soil, and very occasionally with linseed. It sometimes forms a rotation with *kodon* or with cotton and *jowār*, and frequently with linseed and gram. Between 50 and 60 lb. is sown to an acre in the southern Districts, and 90 to 100 lb. in the north. The standard out-turn is 600 lb.

Jowār.

The large millet *jowār* (*Sorghum vulgare*) now covers nearly 2,800 square miles, or $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the cropped area. The acreage under it has increased by 39 per cent. during the last decade, at the expense of wheat and linseed. It is mainly an autumn crop, but when the rainfall is heavy it is also grown after the rains. The ordinary seed-time is the first week in July, but in the north it is sometimes put down as soon as the rains break in June. The harvest extends over December and the first part of January. Only from 5 to 10 lb. of seed is sown to the acre, and the out-turn varies between 350 lb. in Mandlā and 700 lb. in Wardhā. *Jowār* is frequently sown with a mixture of the pulse *arhar* (*Cajanus indicus*), in the proportion of one-seventh, or of *mūng* (*Phaseolus Mungo*). In the south it is grown regularly in rotation with cotton, the field being manured when cotton is sown.

Kodon and *kutkī.*

Kodon (*Paspalum scrobiculatum*) and *kutkī* (*Panicum psilopodium*) are small grass-like millets sown on the poor highlands of the plateaux. Taken together, they cover 3,600 square miles, or 12 per cent. of the cropped area. The area under them has increased by 70 per cent. since 1892–3, about a third of the increase being due to the inclusion of *zamīndāri* statistics, and the remainder to substitution for rice and spring crops. *Kodon* is sown broadcast after rice in the beginning of July, and ripens towards the end of October and in November. The seed sown varies from 10 to 20 lb. an acre and the out-turn is 420 lb., giving 210 lb. of husked grain. *Kutkī* is a crop which ripens very rapidly, and can be cut within sixty days after it is sown. It is either sown at the break of the rains and reaped in August to get an early food-supply, or sown towards the end of August and reaped in October. From 5 to 10 lb. of seed is sown per acre, and the out-turn is said to be about 300 lb.

Other cereals.

The other cereals cover about 900 square miles. Among these may be mentioned maize (*Zea Mays*), with 200 square miles, which is largely grown in the small garden plots at the

back of houses, and the small millet *bājra* or *cambu* with 85 square miles. Various other small millets also are grown.

The pulse gram (*Cicer arietinum*) covers about 1,450 square miles or 5 per cent. of the cropped area, and the acreage under it has increased by 40 per cent. since 1892–3, mainly at the expense of wheat. Gram is largely sown mixed with wheat in the proportion of 15 to 85, and also with linseed. The mixture is made to lessen the exhausting effect of these crops, as plants of the pea tribe exercise a recuperative effect on the soil by assimilating nitrogen through the roots. For the same reason it is grown in rotation with wheat and linseed. It is sown at the end of October and November with the wheat crop, and is cut either just before it or at the same time. Occasionally gram forms a second crop in black soil or irrigated rice-fields after the rice has been cut. From 60 to 80 lb. of seed is required for an acre, and the out-turn is 550 lb. Gram.

The other pulses cover nearly 3,000 square miles. Of these the most important are *urad* (*Phaseolus radiatus*) and *mūng* (*Phaseolus Mungo*), with a combined area of 1,250 square miles, mainly in Chhattīsgarh. They are grown almost equally as autumn and spring crops, and in the latter case mainly as a second crop after rice, being sown broadcast in the standing grain after the water has been let out of the embanked fields. *Arhar* (*Cajanus indicus*) covers 500 square miles, principally in Nāgpur and Nimār, where the cultivation has increased largely in the last year or two. It is grown in the autumn as a rotation crop in black soil land, and in Nāgpur is largely mixed with cotton and *jowār*. *Tiurā* or *lakh* (*Lathyrus sativus*) occupies 570 square miles, the area under it having decreased by 32 per cent. in the last decade. It is grown in the spring season, mainly in the rice Districts, as a second crop, and is given to cattle. *Masūr* or lentil (*Ervum Lens*) is a spring crop grown under much the same conditions as gram, and also as a second crop after rice. It occupies about 350 square miles, mainly in Jubbulpore, Seonī, Narsinghpur, Betūl, and Chhattīsgarh. Peas (*Pisum arvense*) cover 320 square miles, mainly in Raipur and Bilāspur. Other pulses.

Oilseeds occupy about 3,350 square miles, or 11 per cent. of the cropped area. Of these the most important is *til* (*Sesamum indicum*), the area under which has nearly doubled during the last decade and is now 1,500 square miles. It is grown both as an autumn and as a spring crop, the proportion of the former being about two-thirds, and it is distributed all over the Province. It is frequently sown mixed with *kodon*, *arhar*, Oilseeds.

and other crops. About 2 to 6 lb. of seed is sown to an acre, and the standard out-turn is 200 lb. Linseed covers about 1,300 square miles, this being a great deal less than the area under it in 1890. It is a cold-weather crop, being sown in the beginning of October and cut in February, a month before wheat. Linseed is grown as a single crop in black soil and is somewhat exhausting, and also as a second crop after rice. About 10 to 20 lb. of seed is sown to the acre, and the out-turn is 260 lb. Of the remaining oilseeds the most important is *ramtillī* or *jagnī* (*Guizotia oleifera*). This is a rains crop and is grown on very poor soil, with little or no expenditure on cultivation. The out-turn is said to be about 150 lb. per acre. More than 50 square miles are under rape and mustard, which are generally grown in small garden plots.

Fibres. Cotton.

Cotton now covers 2,000 square miles, or 7 per cent. of the cropped area. It has increased from 1,100 square miles since 1892–3 under the stimulus of high prices, and is still continuing to expand. The Wardhā valley, comprising Wardhā District and the west of Nāgpur, the Sausar *tahsīl* of Chhindwāra, and Nimār District constitute the cotton tract of the Province, though the crop is also grown in Betūl, Narsinghpur, and Hoshangābād. Owing to the bulk of the fibre before it is cleaned and pressed, and the consequent cost of transport, cotton cultivation is not usually found profitable at a great distance from a railway. Cotton is generally sown immediately after the first heavy rain. In the Wardhā valley it is usually mixed with *arhar*, in the proportion of two or three lines of the latter after eight or ten of cotton. The picking goes on from the beginning of November to the beginning of February. From 8 to 16 lb. of seed is required per acre, and the standard out-turn is 240 lb. of uncleaned, yielding 70 lb. of cleaned cotton. Cotton is generally grown in rotation with *jowār* in the Wardhā valley, sometimes with wheat in the third year. It is an exhausting crop, and if sown twice successively the land must be turned up with the heavy plough and manured. The crop is greatly benefited by manure, and the cultivators make every effort to give it as much as possible. The only other fibre grown is *san*-hemp (*Crotalaria juncea*), which covers about 140 square miles.

Fruits, vegetables, and condiments. Sugar-cane.

Of the 230 square miles under orchards, vegetables, and condiments, 30 are devoted to sugar-cane (*Saccharum officinarum*). This crop has greatly decreased in popularity since 1892–3, when it covered 70 square miles, while for some years about 1870 the area was 140 square miles. With the extension

of railway communication, however, the local *gur* or unrefined sugar has been undersold by that imported from Northern and Western India, which can be retailed at a substantially cheaper rate. Condiments and spices cover 60 square miles, those principally grown being betel-vine, turmeric, chillies, coriander, and ginger. More than 70 square miles are under vegetables, of which there is a very large variety. Melons and water-melons are grown on the sandy stretches exposed on the banks of rivers. About 70 square miles included in holdings and 25 excluded from them are shown as occupied by groves and orchards.

Implements of cultivation.

The following are the principal agricultural implements. The *nāgar* or country plough has an iron share in spike form penetrating 6 or 9 inches, the body being made of wood. The *bakhar* or paring plough has a horizontal blade about 20 inches long and 4 inches wide, which is dragged across the ground and goes 2 or 3 inches deep. It is generally used in preparing land for sowing, unless the ground is very hard or is much overgrown with weeds. In the northern Districts the seed is sown with the *nāri*, consisting of a single bamboo tube fixed behind the spike of the plough, through which the seed is dropped. In the south the implement used for sowing is the *tifan*; this is formed of a log of wood to which three short iron spikes are fixed, and behind each of them is a hollow bamboo leading down from the sowing bowl at the top. The seed is thus sown simultaneously in three shallow furrows. The *daurā* is an implement used for weeding in the Nāgpur country. It resembles the *bakhar*, but the iron blade is much shorter so that it can pass between two lines of the crop. In the north weeding is done by hand with a spud. The *datāri* is a sort of harrow used in the rice Districts for puddling the earth in the fields and collecting the weeds. For crushing the clods in the rice-fields a heavy beam of wood is dragged across the field with a man standing on it.

Manure.

The importance attached to manure varies with the character of the cropping. It is seldom used for the spring crops, and experience has shown that there is little profit in applying manure to unembanked wheat-fields unless wheat is grown in rotation with a rains crop. In rice and still more in cotton-*jowār* cultivation, on the other hand, the advantages of manure are fully appreciated. As a rule, the quantity available is insufficient, the cultivator's only source of supply being the droppings of his cattle. These are saved for manure in the rains, but during the open season are required for fuel-cakes;

and even where an abundant supply of wood-fuel is available, it is often said that a mixture of cowdung cakes is necessary for cooking purposes. The manure is usually stacked in surface heaps and is seldom pitted, much of its benefit being thus lost. Little or no use is made of the urine, though occasionally a cultivator will put down straw or silt to retain it. Green-soiling also is very seldom practised, though crops of *jagnī* and *til* are sometimes sown and ploughed in for this purpose. In the rice Districts the silt at the borders of tanks is dug up and placed on the fields and makes a very good manure, while in the cotton-*jowār* tracts flocks of sheep and goats are penned at night on the fields.

The Agricultural department and model farm.

The model farm at Nāgpur has existed for many years, and was made an experimental farm for the improvement of agriculture in 1883. Its operations were, however, conducted on a comparatively small scale till 1901, but important developments have taken place since. The staff has been largely strengthened, and two additional farms have been started at Raipur and Hoshangābād. Two cattle-breeding farms have recently been opened in Nāgpur and Hoshangābād for the improvement of agricultural cattle. An agricultural school at Nāgpur is maintained for the instruction of subordinate revenue officials and the sons of landowners, and agricultural associations have been formed in each District for the dissemination of information and the introduction of improved seed and implements. With the same view a number of small demonstration farms have been established, and a monthly Agricultural Gazette in Hindī is now published, which has attained a considerable circulation. In 1905 a separate Director of Agriculture was appointed, and the staff of the department largely expanded by the appointment of experts to initiate systematic research into the prevention of diseases, the destruction of pests, and the general development of the agriculture of the Province in accordance with the most advanced scientific methods. The budget of the Agricultural department for 1906–7 amounts to nearly 4 lakhs.

Irrigation. General conditions.

Broadly speaking, it has been found that of the four main classes of soil and cultivation already described as existing in the Province, the rice lands are the only ones to which the application of irrigation can be expected to offer certain and immediate advantages. Up to the present time there have been no state irrigation works in the Central Provinces, and the area now irrigated is supplied almost entirely from private works, consisting of tanks, river channels, wells, and field

embankments. In a normal year the maximum area irrigable is about 1,350 square miles, or only 5 per cent. of the total under crops. To this, however, should be added about 780 square miles of crops grown in lands saturated by means of field embankments. Including this land, 8 per cent. of the normal cropped area may be said to be protected by irrigation works. The area irrigated, however, varies largely from year to year with the character of the rainfall. Of 1,350 square miles actually irrigated, about 1,150, or 88 per cent. of the total, consist of rice irrigated from private tanks; and the remaining 200 of wheat, vegetables, condiments, spices, and sugar-cane irrigated chiefly from wells.

Methods of irrigation. Tank-irrigation is confined almost entirely to rice. Of 1,150 square miles irrigated, about 780 are in the Waingangā valley and 360 in Chhattīsgarh. Over the rest of the Province there is practically no irrigation of rice. British Districts contain about 47,500 tanks, of which 28,500 are to be found in the Waingangā rice Districts, including Seonī and Nāgpur, and 18,500 in Chhattīsgarh. Even in a favourable year the tanks of the Waingangā tract irrigate on an average less than 20 acres each, and those of Chhattīsgarh only about 10 acres. The arrangements for disposing of flood waters are generally deficient, and the banks are often too weak to stand a high pressure. There are only about 65,000 irrigation wells, and the area supplied by them is 88,000 acres or about $1\frac{1}{3}$ acres to each well. Out of the whole number, 15,000 are constructed of masonry and the remainder are small temporary wells, many of which are mere holes in the beds of streams. A permanent well irrigates 3 or 4 acres on an average. Rather more than half the area irrigated from wells consists of wheat and other spring crops, and the balance of sugar-cane and garden crops. The cost of a temporary well is Rs. 25 to Rs. 30, and of a permanent one Rs. 200 to Rs. 500, or more if blasting has to be done. About fifty square miles are irrigated from other sources, mainly by channels for the conveyance of water from rivers or streams; but considering the facilities which exist in many parts of the Province for the construction of small river-fed channels, the area irrigated in this way is remarkably small.

Extension of irrigation. The Irrigation Commission (1901–3) were of opinion that there is ample scope for the extension of irrigation by means of storage tanks under exceptionally favourable conditions in the rice Districts. An Irrigation branch of the Public Works department has now been formed. About 200 projects for

storage tanks have been drawn up. Their average capacity is about 300 million cubic feet; and it is estimated that they would protect a total area of 700 square miles of rice at a cost of about 3 crores of rupees, or at the rate of about Rs. 67 per acre. During 1903-4 the construction of tanks and field embankments as state irrigation works was begun departmentally.

Cattle. Description of breeds.

Cattle are bred all over the Province, but animals of any quality are reared only in a few localities. The plough-cattle of nearly the whole rice area are miserably poor. They often cost only Rs. 25 or 30 a pair. The wheat country occupies an intermediate place between the rice tracts with the worst, and the cotton-*jowār* area with the best cattle. The price of bullocks here ranges from Rs. 50 to Rs. 80 a pair. The two good breeds used in the cotton-*jowār* Districts are bred in Nimār and along the southern face of the Sātpurā Hills. The Nimār cattle are generally dark red in colour, with small but well-proportioned bodies, and small sheaths and dewlaps; they are spirited and have strong feet and legs, and are well suited for hard work. A pair costs from Rs. 100 to Rs. 250. The cattle used in the Wardhā valley are called Gaolao, and are bred in Chhindwāra and in the Arvī *tahsīl* of Wardhā. Animals of this breed are large and white, with full chests and fairly developed forearms, and are well suited for fast work. Their price varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 300 a pair. Cultivating cattle of these breeds are fed on the stalks of *jowār* and on cotton-seed throughout the working season, and sometimes receive also pulse and oil-cake. In the wheat-growing Districts cultivating cattle are stall-fed only during the working season, when they get a ration of pulse, and in the rice Districts the majority of them usually receive nothing but straw. The Gaolao and Nimāri cattle are bred carefully from selected bulls; but in other areas bulls are seldom kept, and the immature bullocks are allowed to mix with the cows before castration, thus preventing any improvement in the breed.

Buffaloes and other animals.

Buffaloes are bred all over the Province. They are useless for cultivation except in the rice area where water is frequently standing in the fields. In the northern Districts and the Nāgpur country the cows are kept for the manufacture of *ghī* (clarified butter) from their milk, while the young bulls are disposed of cheaply to the caste of Basdewās, who drive them in herds to Chhattīsgarh for sale. A cow buffalo costs from Rs. 50 to Rs. 80, and in Chhattīsgarh the young bulls fetch Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 each. The indigenous breed of ponies

is almost entirely worthless, and the efforts made by Government to improve it by the provision of stallions have now been abandoned in favour of cattle-breeding farms. The highest price of a pony is about Rs. 100. Goats and sheep are usually bred by the professional shepherd castes, the former for food, for milk, which Muhammadans and low-caste Hindus drink, and for offerings to the deities, and the latter principally for their wool, from which the ordinary country blanket used by all cultivators is woven. The price of a goat is from Rs. 2 to Rs. 6, and of a sheep from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3.

Miscellaneous.

Grazing is generally adequate, except in a few of the most closely cultivated Districts. The forests of Mandlā, the Baihar *tahsīl* of Bālāghāt, Chānda, and Nimār are well-known grazing grounds, to the first two of which thousands of cattle are sent from all the adjacent Districts during the hot season. Four important annual cattle-fairs are held in the Province, at Singhāji in Nimār, Chhapāra in Seonī, Garhākotā in Saugor, and Rājim in Raipur. Prizes for the best bred animals are offered at these fairs, but it is doubtful whether they have had much result. The principal cattle-diseases are rinderpest (*māta*), anthrax (*ghatsarap* or *phāsi*), foot-and-mouth disease (*khurī* and *baikrā*), and pleuro-pneumonia (*phapsia*). A variety of native remedies are used, several of which are of little value; but strict segregation is very seldom attempted, and cultivators generally say that it is impracticable. A Civil Veterinary department has been established, supervised by a qualified officer under the Director of Agriculture. Eighteen veterinary dispensaries have been opened at the head-quarters of Districts with subordinate Veterinary Assistants, who also travel in the interior of Districts for the treatment of epidemic disease.

Loans. Land improvement and agricultural loans.

The development of the system of advances under the Land Improvement and Agriculturists' Loans Acts is a feature of recent years. Taking the former kind of loans first, the total amount advanced under the Act of 1871 up to 1883 was only Rs. 50,000, and under the new Act of 1883 up to 1895, 2·7 lakhs. During the famine of 1897 the policy of providing work by giving land improvement loans received a great impetus, a quarter of the principal being usually remitted if the conditions of the grant were carried out. In the second famine of 1900, however, it was considered with justice that the landowners were too impoverished to be asked to expend capital on the provision of work, and a new system was introduced by which free grants were made by Government for the construction of tanks and other improvements. The

ordinary purposes for which loans have been made since 1883 are the construction and repair of village tanks, the embankment of wheat-fields, and the destruction of *kāns* grass in the Vindhyan Districts. Between 1895 and 1904, about 18 lakhs was lent. Advances under the Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884 are made for the purchase of plough-cattle and seed. These advances also began on a very small scale, 3·2 lakhs being lent between 1884 and 1891, or less than half a lakh annually. With the advent of scarcity in the northern Districts in 1893 the amounts advanced rose rapidly, and between 1891 and 1895 15 lakhs was distributed in loans. During 1896–7 the advances were 15 lakhs, and in the famine of 1900 38 lakhs, the greater part of the latter sum being granted without interest. A total of 101 lakhs had been advanced by 1904 in agriculturists' loans.

Interest on private loans. Money-lenders.

The rates of interest on private loans are fairly uniform all over the Province, though they have a tendency to be lower in the most advanced Districts, where the cultivators are capable of protecting their own interests. For large sums borrowed on ample security or on pledge of jewellery, the rate varies from 6 to 9 per cent. For ordinary proprietors and the best class of tenants or on mortgage of unencumbered land, the average is 12 per cent. Tenants in moderate circumstances, who may be indebted but not hopelessly involved, pay from 18 to 24 per cent.; while for the poorest classes of tenants and for small unsecured loans to artisans and others, the interest rises to 37½, 50, and even 100 per cent. In the case of grain advanced either for seed, or for subsistence while the crop is maturing, the ordinary rate for wheat and the other cold-season food-grains is 25 per cent. between sowing and harvest, though it sometimes rises to 50 per cent. in time of famine. In the Districts where spring crops are mainly grown, the interest on the autumn seed-grains is usually 100 per cent. But in the rice Districts the rate for rice is 25, 37½, or rarely 50 per cent., while for *jowār* the rate in Wardhā is only 25 per cent. and in other *jowār*-growing Districts 50 per cent. The rates for oilseeds are high, ranging from 50 to 100 per cent. Nearly all the large money-lenders and the majority of the smaller ones are Mārwāri Baniās; but many other castes, as Brāhmans, Rājputs, and the castes who own and cultivate land, also participate in the business. Most cultivating proprietors who are in good circumstances prefer to lend grain for seed and subsistence to their tenants, because in addition to its being very profitable they find it much more

easy to realize the rents in this case than when their tenants are indebted to another creditor.

Indebtedness of the agricultural classes.

The grant of proprietary rights, followed by a large increase in the value of landed property, converted the village landowners, the descendants of the rack-rented headmen of Marāthā times, into a substantial body of men. But the great increase of credit which they suddenly obtained led many of them to indulge in reckless extravagance on marriages and other occasions of display. Inquiries made in 1888 showed that during the previous twenty-five years one-fifth of the village lands had changed hands, half of the transfers being to the money-lending as opposed to the cultivating classes. During the next fifteen years the process cannot fail to have been more rapid, though the famine of 1900 was, owing to the great assistance given by the state, undoubtedly less injurious to the financial condition of the cultivators than that of 1896–7. Government has been alive to the burden of excessive debt thrown on the cultivators, and, to lighten it and to encourage them to make a fresh start, has instituted proceedings in the worst tracts for the voluntary liquidation of debts of both landlords and tenants. These have been in many cases eminently successful, and creditors have agreed to a scheme of repayment of part of the debt in instalments spread over a number of years, the balance being freely forgone. In eight Districts, in part or the whole of which these proceedings have been taken, debts aggregating 1·64 crores have been dealt with and 96 lakhs remitted by creditors.

Rents, wages, and prices. Rents.

Economic rent is practically non-existent in the Central Provinces, the rents of all classes of tenants except sub-tenants being fixed by the Settlement officer at the periodical revision of the land revenue. The rental of the previous settlement being taken as a standard, enhancements are based on the increase in the prices of produce, or extension of cultivation, according to a general rate previously determined, which is usually considerably less than that actually warranted by the statistics. During the currency of the settlement, a period of twenty or thirty years, the landlord can practically raise rents only through the agency of a revenue court, which determines an equitable rate. A sub-tenant is a person holding land from another tenant or in the proprietor's home farm, and is not protected by law. The following maximum and minimum figures of rental represent the average for groups of villages of greatest and least fertility in each area, while the average rental is the average of all the groups. The fertile wheat-

growing tract of the Narbadā valley has the highest rental, the figures per acre being maximum Rs. 3-12, minimum 3 annas, average Rs. 1-10-6. Next to this come the rice tracts of Bhandāra and Bālāghāt with a large percentage of irrigation, maximum Rs. 1-12, minimum 4 annas, average Rs. 1-1, while the cotton-*jowār* Districts of Nāgpur and Wardhā have nearly the same rates with a maximum of Rs. 1-15, minimum 7 annas, average 15½ annas. The figures for the Vindhyan plateau Districts are maximum Rs. 1-12, minimum 6 annas, average 15 annas, and for the poorer area of the Sātpurā plateau maximum Rs. 1-12, minimum 3 annas, average 8 annas. The rice country of Chhattīsgarh pays at present a very low rental in proportion to its fertility, the figures being maximum 15 annas, minimum 11 pies, average 10 annas. Owing to the fact that all Districts contain areas of very poor land, the figures of minimum rental do not afford much information. The general rental incidence of the Province is 12 annas, and the average area of a tenant's holding is 12 acres. The rents paid by sub-tenants are usually twice or three times the average rental. In the cotton-growing area during the last few years land has been sublet for ten times the Government rental or more. The custom of paying rents in kind is no longer important, as the policy of Government has been to commute all such rents into cash. But lands are often sublet on a contract for dividing the produce. In such cases the contract is usually that the owner or tenant of the land supplies the bullocks and seed-grain, while the sub-lessee does all the labour. When the crop has been harvested the seed-grain and sometimes the rent is deducted, and the remainder divided equally between the parties. In the *zamīndāris* where shifting cultivation still goes on in the forests, rents are paid in grain on an axe of land, that is, a patch cleared by one family, and amounting to something over an acre.

Wages. Wages for agricultural labour are still generally paid in kind, and farm-servants employed by the year receive various perquisites at sowing-time and harvest, so that the determination of their cash equivalents presents much difficulty. Generally it may be said that grain wages have remained constant for a long period, though in recent years and owing to the famines there has been a tendency either to decrease their amount or to substitute inferior varieties of grain. In Nāgpur and Wardhā Districts, owing to the competition of the factories and mines, wages have risen largely, the cash rates for farm-servants being Rs. 50 to Rs. 80 a year, compared

with Rs. 40 in 1890, and Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 in 1860. The corresponding figures for the Narbadā valley are Rs. 60, Rs. 42, and Rs. 25. In other Districts the increase of wages has not more than kept pace with the rise in prices. In Chhattīsgarh farm-servants usually receive a fourth of the produce to be divided between them. In the Sātpurā Districts they get a fifth of the produce. During the year advances of grain are made to them, and these are deducted with interest when they are paid. In other Districts they receive a monthly wage of grain, while in the more advanced tracts cash payments are being substituted for this. The grain wages amount in some of the northern Districts to about 950 lb. a year, and in the Waingangā valley to between 1,400 and 2,000 lb. of unhusked rice. At the wheat harvest labourers earn two or three days' food for a day's work, the rate being one sheaf in twenty or thirty cut. For *jowār*-cutting in Wardhā $7\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of grain a day is paid. About 10 lb. of unhusked rice and 5 lb. of wheat per day are other typical rates for harvesting. For sowing the crops men are generally employed, and women for weeding and transplanting. Cash wages for men are 3 to 4 annas a day in the south, 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ annas in the north, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 annas in Chhattīsgarh during the busy season. Women get half an anna less than men in Chhattīsgarh, and an anna less elsewhere. Certain village artisans and servants receive payment in kind for services rendered to the cultivators. Those usually found are the Lohār or blacksmith, the Barhai or carpenter, the Nai or barber, the Dhobi or washerman, the Dhīmar or water-bearer, the Chamār or tanner, and the village priest.

At the time of the formation of the Province in 1861 prices were very low, as was natural in a landlocked tract with little or no means of exporting its surplus. Various causes, the chief of which were a great influx of European capital, and the abnormal demand for cotton occasioned by the American Civil War, brought about an extraordinary rise in 1863, continuing until 1869, when a general fall set in, which was, however, checked by the opening of railway communication with the seaport towns, and the demand for grain arising from the famine of 1876–8 in Northern India and Madras. Between 1881 and 1891, as shown in Table V, prices rose steadily, and in 1891 the increase per cent. on 1862 was given as rice 200, wheat 169, *jowār* 123, and gram 105. During the last decade prices again rose, and reached their highest point in the famine of 1897. They fell in the two following years, and did not rise to quite such a high level again in the famine of 1900. A Prices.

considerable fall followed, and the averages for 1904 were nearly the same as in 1891. The prices of salt, sugar, yarn, and cotton piece-goods have also decreased. Owing to the improvement of communications, there is now less variation in prices between town and country, and a more uniform level is maintained throughout the Province. In normal years the prices of the staple crops are almost entirely governed by those obtainable for exports, which depend on the European market. The movement of prices has on the whole been very favourable to the people, for while the articles which they produce, such as the agricultural staples, have largely increased in value, the prices of articles which they consume but do not produce have generally diminished.

Material condition of the people.

The most prosperous part of the Province is the cotton-growing tract of the Wardhā valley. Here, owing to the development of mining and factory industries, a daily labourer is as well-to-do as an ordinary tenant elsewhere, and his condition is in many respects preferable to that of a half-educated clerk. In the Vindhyan plateau and Narbadā valley Districts the standard of living is comparatively high, though the people have recently become impoverished from bad seasons. There is usually a full establishment of village servants whose services are utilized by all cultivators for work which elsewhere they do themselves, while a larger proportion of indoor servants are employed than elsewhere. Shoes and head-cloths are here universally worn, even labourers usually have blankets, and cultivators have quilted cotton coats and caps for the cold weather. In Chhattīsgarh and on parts of the Sātpurā plateau the standard of living is still very low. A couple of strips of cloth and perhaps a blanket suffice for the dress of the cultivator, while his food consists of little but a gruel of boiled rice and water. But even here, the last few years would have witnessed a great development had it not been arrested by famine. The annual cost of food for an adult cultivator may be taken as varying from Rs. 15 in the poorest to Rs. 35 in the richest tracts. The cost of clothes for a labourer of the poorest class in Chhattīsgarh and his wife will scarcely be more than Rs. 3, and will consist of two or three cloths without blankets or shoes. The ordinary cultivator will spend from Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 annually in clothing his family. The value of his house will be from Rs. 10 to Rs. 40, and of his furniture Rs. 5 or 6, while a labourer's house is worth only Rs. 3 or 4, and his furniture about half this. The condition of the proprietary class varies greatly, some being no better off than

ordinary cultivators, while most of them live like a clerk on Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 a month. Their houses and clothes may be inferior to his, but they have richer and better food. A clerk with this income spends about Rs. 20 a year on his own clothes and the same for those of his wife and family, his wife's ornaments having been provided at the wedding. The food of the family will cost Rs. 200 a year or more. He occupies a brick house with several rooms, paying a rent of about Rs. 3 a month, and as much more for the services of a barber, washerman, water-bearer, and sweeper. His furniture may be worth Rs. 75. A visible rise in comfort of living has occurred in towns. Imported cloth of fine texture is worn, matches are in general use, foreign cigarettes are smoked, kerosene oil is universally used, and lamps with glass chimneys are found in ordinary households. Tea is drunk daily, refined instead of unrefined sugar is eaten, and soda-water is frequently drunk. Many clerks of ordinary means subscribe to vernacular newspapers, and social clubs exist in several towns. Life insurance is increasing in popularity.

Forests. Statistics of area.

The area of Government forests in the Central Provinces is shown as 18,734 square miles in the forest returns. The majority of the forests are situated on the northern and southern slopes of the Sātpurā range, and the remainder on the Vindhyan hills in the north and on the ranges bounding the Nāgpur and Chhattīsgarh plains to the south. The greater part of these latter hills are occupied by forests included in the *zamīndāris* and Feudatory States. In addition to the Government forests, 9,874 square miles of forest are in the hands of *zamīndārs* and village proprietors, while it is estimated that there are about 15,000 square miles in the Feudatory States, this latter figure, however, including scrub and grass. The whole area under forests in the Province is therefore about 44,000 square miles or 38 per cent. of the total area.

Description of forests.

Four main types of forest may be distinguished: the teak, *sāl*, mixed, and bamboo forests. Teak (*Tectona grandis*) occurs either alone or mixed with other species. It is not largely found north of the Narbadā, but extends over the western Sātpurā Districts and the hills south of the Nāgpur plain. The best forests are in the Borī Reserve in Hoshangābād and at Allāpillai in Chānda. In Borī specimens 80 to 100 feet high and 6 feet in girth are obtained. Pure teak forest appears on the lower slopes of the hills, or on alluvial flats along the banks of rivers or at the bottom of ravines. More commonly, and on the higher and middle slopes, teak is mixed with the other

species occurring in mixed forests. The teak forests have been very greatly damaged by clearings for cultivation and the indiscriminate fellings of timber contractors before a system of conservation was introduced. The next timber tree in importance is *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*). The *sāl* forests cover a large tract or belt in the east of the Province, commencing in the plateau beneath the Kaimur range in Rewah and extending over Mandlā, the northern frontier of Chhattīsgarh, the hills bounding the valleys of the Mahānadī and its affluents to the Eastern Ghāts and south to the valley of the Indrāvati. The larger proportion of the *sāl* forests are thus situated in the *zamīndāris* and Feudatory States of Chhattīsgarh. The average height of good trees is 60 to 80 feet, with a clear stem to the first branch of 30 to 40 feet, and a girth of 6 to 8 feet. Specimens of 100 feet in height and 10 feet in girth are found in Mandlā. Mixed forest with or without a proportion of teak is the most common type all over the Province. The most important tree is *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), and other common and valuable timber trees are *bījāsāl* or *beulā* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*), *tendū* or ebony (*Diospyros tomentosa*), *lendiā* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *anjan* or *kohā* (*Terminalia Arjuna*), *dhaurā* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*), *aonlā* (*Phyllanthus Emblica*), *tinsā* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), and *giryā* or satin-wood (*Chloroxylon Swietenia*). Among trees which are valuable for other products than timber, the *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*) is pre-eminent and very common, while *harrā* (*Terminalia Chebula*), whose fruit gives the myrabolams used for tanning, *achār* (*Buchanania latifolia*), whose fruit called *chironjī* is largely used for sweetmeats, and *khair* (*Acacia Catechu*), from the wood of which catechu is prepared, are also important trees. The dry stony hill-tops and plateaux and scarped slopes are mainly covered by *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), a tree of very little value, mixed with stunted specimens of other species. In many places, especially on stretches of flat or undulating land, the forest is very open and poorly stocked, even developing into grass land where areas have formerly been cleared for shifting cultivation. Bamboo forests cover the hill-sides over large areas, sometimes pure, but generally mixed with other species, or forming an undergrowth to the teak.

Control. For administrative purposes the Government forests are divided into two Conservators' charges. Generally, the forests in each District form a Forest division under the charge of a Deputy or Assistant Conservator of the Imperial Forest Service or an Extra-Assistant Conservator of the Provincial Service.

Each division is divided into ranges in charge of an upper subordinate designated a forest ranger. In 1903-4 the Forest Staff comprised 2 Conservators, 9 Deputy-Conservators, 4 Assistant Conservators, 13 Extra-Assistant Conservators, 63 rangers, 58 deputy-rangers, 175 foresters, and 1,657 forest guards.

System of management.

Up to 1893 the felling of trees was allowed under licence without regulation; but since that date working-plans have been drawn up for the majority of the forests, under which systematic fellings have been introduced. The bulk of the produce required for agriculture and building purposes is disposed of by licence, the purchaser being required to take out a stamped licence supplied by vendors stationed in various villages adjoining the forest. In tracts near the forests, whole villages are allowed to commute for their annual supply of fuel and timber for home consumption on payment of a fixed sum. The collection of various minor products, such as myrabolams, lac, honey, gum, special grasses, *mahuā*, and the hides and the horns of animals dying in the forests, are leased out to contractors. In cases where a large fixed demand can be arranged for, the department itself undertakes contracts for timber. Free grants are sometimes made for works of public utility, such as schools and dispensaries, or for the relief of the occupiers of a village which has been burnt down. For grazing, licences are issued of two kinds, one covering the open forests of the District, and the other or nomadic licence those of the whole Province. Certain valuable timber areas are closed to grazing, and in addition all 'coupes' are closed for ten years after being worked over.

Statistics of produce and revenue.

The supply of produce of all kinds is generally in excess of the local demand, which is largely met from the forests in the hands of private holders, these being worked with much less restriction than the Government forests. The amount of produce removed from the forests in 1903-4 was $3\frac{1}{4}$ million cubic feet of timber, 18 million cubic feet of fuel, $19\frac{3}{4}$ million bamboo stems, and 53,000 tons of grass. The following figures show the average annual revenue, expenditure, and surplus for the decades ending 1890 and 1900, and the years 1901-2 and 1903-4: (1881-90) revenue 10·81 lakhs, expenditure 5·18 lakhs, surplus 5·63 lakhs; (1891-1900) revenue 10·31 lakhs, expenditure 8·92 lakhs, surplus 1·39 lakhs; (1901-2) revenue 11·88 lakhs, expenditure 10.13 lakhs, surplus 1·75 lakhs; (1903-4) revenue 14·04 lakhs, expenditure 10·59 lakhs, surplus 3·45 lakhs. The small surplus realized during the second decade was due

to the forests being thrown open in several years for free removal of produce during famine. The necessary restrictions placed on grazing have had the effect of considerably diminishing the income under this head. At the same time there has been a large increase in the area under systematic fire-protection, and the restriction of fellings to specified areas introduced in 1893 caused at least a temporary decline in income.

Miscellaneous.

The relations with the people are generally good, and the number of forest offences is not excessive considering the extent of the forests. The handling of the primitive tribes who resent interference with their free use of the forest requires considerable tact and firmness. The labour supply for forest work, except at sowing and harvest time, is generally sufficient; where it is difficult to procure outside labour, forest villages have been established within the boundaries of 'reserved' forest, in order to have at hand a permanent supply of work-people who are by race, caste, or occupation habituated to the extraction or handling of forest produce. In times of scarcity and famine the forests are thrown open for the free collection of all edible products, and, if necessary, for the removal of fuel, grass, and sometimes bamboos by head-loads in order to employ labour. This concession is valuable, as a large variety of edible products in the shape of flowers, fruits, seeds, gum, leaves, and roots can be obtained by natives accustomed to a jungle life. If grass is scarce, free grazing also is allowed. Besides this, the construction of forest roads and sometimes the cutting of fire-lines is undertaken, and this work affords congenial employment to the primitive tribes, many of whom will not attend ordinary relief works. In the famines of 1897 and 1900 produce to the value of between 3 and 4 lakhs was removed free of charge. In the famine of 1900 when a serious scarcity of fodder was apprehended, the cutting of grass was undertaken as a relief work, and 83,000 tons were cut at a cost of 5 lakhs. The greater part of the 'reserved' forests are now protected from fire, fire-lines being cut all round the protected forest, while for the more valuable areas a special establishment of fire-watchers is employed during the hot season. In 1903–4, 8,153 square miles of forest were protected at a cost varying from Rs. 2 to Rs. 11 per square mile.

Mines and minerals. Coal.

Coal-measures occur in various parts of the Province, all belonging to the Barākar group of Gondwāna rocks. They may be classified broadly as situated in the Sātpurā basin, the Wardhā-Godāvari valley, and the Mahānadī valley. The prin-

cipal fields in the Sātpurā basin are those of Mohpāni, Shāhpur or Betūl, and the Pench valley in Chhindwāra. The Mohpāni field, near Gādarwāra in Narsinghpur, is worked by a company. So far as the Shāhpur field has been explored, the outcrops which lie on the south of the Tawā valley do not appear to be of great promise, the coal being inferior and of irregular thickness. In Chhindwāra numerous seams have been discovered in several localities varying in thickness from 3 to 14 feet. A recent analysis of the quality of the coal shows that it can be profitably worked, and mining operations have been started with the opening of the railway to Chhindwāra. The Wardhā valley field extends for about 285 miles in the valleys of the Wardhā, Prānhita, and Godāvari rivers. The coal has been worked only in a Government colliery at Warorā, but prospecting licences have been taken out for large areas. At Bandar, 30 miles north-east of Warorā, three seams with a maximum thickness of 38 feet have been proved to exist. It is estimated that the Wardhā valley field contains 14 million tons of coal. The Mahānadī basin comprises the Raigarh-Hemgir, Korbā, and Mānd coal-fields, which cover an area of not less than a thousand square miles; the coal seams are sometimes of enormous size, and thicknesses as great as 90 feet at Korbā and even 168 feet at Hemgir have been recorded; but, though including good coal, these are often largely made up of carbonaceous shale. Sometimes too the seams die out within surprisingly short distances. A good seam of steam coal and two seams of rather inferior quality have been discovered near Rāmpur, where the field is crossed by the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. The Mohpāni mines were worked by the Nerbudda Coal and Iron Company from 1862 to 1904, when the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company purchased them. The output in 1904 was 25,617 tons valued at 1·34 lakhs, and 664 operatives were employed. The Warorā colliery has been worked by Government since 1871, the capital outlay being 15 lakhs. The output in 1904 was 112,319 tons, valued at 5·21 lakhs, and 1,040 operatives were employed, chiefly men from the United Provinces. There is a large local demand for the coal from the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and the factories of Nāgpur and Wardhā. The present seams at Warorā are however nearly worked out [1], and fresh seams at Ballālpur are being tested. The wages of miners in the collieries vary from 5 annas to 10 annas a day, while unskilled coolies receive 3 annas.

[1] The Warorā colliery was closed in 1906.

Iron.

Iron ores of good quality occur in Jubbulpore, Mandlā, Narsinghpur, Chānda, Bhandāra, Bālāghāt, Raipur, and Bilāspur Districts, and smaller veins in Saugor and Seonī. The most extensive deposits appear to be in Chāndā, where the Lohāra hill, 3 furlongs long, 200 yards broad, and 120 feet high, is described as consisting of compact crystalline haematite with some magnetic oxide, and the ore is believed to be traceable for a considerable distance. The percentage of iron found in the ores in the more important localities varies from 68 to 73. A prospecting licence has recently been given in Chānda with a view to the establishment of ironworks on modern methods, and licences have also been issued in Raipur and Sambalpur. The ores are worked in several Districts by indigenous methods by the caste of Agariās or iron-workers, who are an offshoot of the Gonds. The best known centres are Sihorā in Jubbulpore and Tendūkhedā in Narsinghpur. The returns for 1904 show 441 furnaces working, with an output of 2,818 tons of iron. Iron ochre is worked at Katnī in Jubbulpore for the manufacture of paint.

Manganese.

Manganese ores are found in the Districts of Jubbulpore, Chhindwāra, Nāgpur, Bhandāra, and Bālāghāt. A number of prospecting licences and mining leases have been granted in the last four Districts, and during recent years an important mining industry has sprung up. The workings are all from the surface, but fifteen of the quarries have now reached a greater depth than 20 feet and have been brought under the Mines Act. The output of manganese from these was 85,000 tons in 1904, the most important mines being in the Rāmtek *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District. The number of persons employed in the manganese mines in 1904 was 2,010.

Limestone and sandstone.

Limestone is abundant in Jubbulpore, Chānda, and the Chhattīsgarh Districts, but is exploited only at Murwāra in Jubbulpore, where 16 quarries are situated, all except one being worked by manual labour. These quarries are under the Mines Act. Their output in 1904 was 49,847 tons of lime valued at about 5 lakhs, and 2,510 persons were employed. Fuller's earth is obtained in another quarry. Excellent stone is obtained from a number of sandstone quarries at Murwāra, and exported in the shape of posts and slabs. Sandstone is quarried for building purposes in many Districts, but statistics of output are not recorded.

Distribution of minerals as yet unworked.

These minerals are the only ones as yet proved capable of yielding a profit on working, but many others occur. The Mahānadī and several of its tributaries, the Son in Bālāghāt,

and other rivers contain auriferous sands, and a few persons earn a precarious livelihood by washing for gold. Argentiferous galena occurs in several localities, samples from Sleemanābād in Jubbulpore and Jogā in Hoshangābād yielding 19 oz. 12 dwt. and 21 oz. 3 dwt. per ton of lead respectively. Prospecting licences have been taken out at both places. Copper ores are known to exist at Chicholī in Raipur, at Sleemanābād in Jubbulpore, at Barmhān in Narsinghpur, and in Chānda and Bālāghāt. Mica occurs in Bālāghāt, Bilāspur, and Bastar, but the plates are too small to be of commercial value. Bauxite, an aluminous ore, is found in Bālāghāt. Graphite or plumbago has been discovered in Raipur and Kālāhandī. Agate pebbles are found in Jubbulpore, and are worked up into various articles of ornament by the local lapidaries.

Arts and manufactures. General.

With the exception of one or two small industries, the articles manufactured by hand in the Central Provinces are of the simple nature designed to meet the wants of a primitive agricultural population and possess little artistic merit. The principal manufactures are silk-weaving, cotton-weaving, cotton dyeing and printing, gold and silver work, brass, copper and bell-metal work, and the making of glass bangles. Pottery, bamboo-work, and blanket-weaving are of somewhat less importance. These industries are as a rule not in a prosperous condition, owing to the competition of more highly organized methods of manufacture and to changes in fashion.

Description of industries.

The silk industry supports 23,000 persons. Imported or mulberry silk is principally woven in Nimār, Nāgpur, and Bhandāra, while the indigenous *tasar* silk is worked in Chānda and Chhattīsgarh. In the former Districts cotton cloths woven with silk borders are the staple product. In Burhānpur these are ornamented with gold and silver lace, and the embroidered cloths produced here were formerly estimated second only to the precious fabrics of Dacca and Surat, and formed the basis of a lucrative trade with Europe. There is now little demand for the more expensive cloths. The silk-bordered loin-cloths and *sārīs* or women's cloths of Nāgpur and Bhandāra are still in large request, and the weavers are fairly prosperous. The *tasar* silk industry shows signs of revival with the facilities recently granted for the cultivation of cocoons in Government forests. Industries connected with cotton now support about 400,000 persons, a decline of 37 per cent. since 1891. Cotton-spinning, formerly carried on in every village, is practically extinct as an industry. The low-caste Katiās, Mahārs, and Gāndas, who weave the coarser kinds of country cloth

from thread purchased at the mills, still find a market among the poorer tenants and labourers. But, except for the silk-bordered cloths already noticed, the higher classes of natives are taking more and more to the use of English and Indian mill-woven fabrics, which, though less durable, are smoother and cheaper. The number of cotton-weavers is largest in the Districts of the Nāgpur plain, where the crop is principally grown. The trade of the dyer is declining with that of the weaver. The finer cloth is woven with coloured thread. The indigenous madder, safflower, turmeric, and indigo have been supplanted by chemical substitutes imported from Europe. Practically the only woollen article made is the coarse country blanket woven by the shepherd castes, who combine this occupation with the tending of sheep. The leather-working industry is, next to that of cotton, the most important numerically, employing 96,000 persons. Workers in leather decreased by 27 per cent. during the decade ending 1901. Various patterns of shoes are worn, the better qualities having ornamental designs worked with silk and cotton thread and lace. Ornamental slippers are made in Chānda and also table-covers, consisting of red leather embroidered with gold wire and green silk. Leathern reins and saddles in imitation of Cawnpore work are made in some towns. There is little worthy of remark in the ornamental gold and silver-work of the Central Provinces, which is as a rule heavier and coarser than that made elsewhere in India, while the designs do not appeal to European taste. The variety of ornaments is considerable, but cannot be described here. Brass is generally imported in sheets from Bombay, and brass vessels are obtained ready-made in large quantities. Copper vessels are for the most part imported, but are also manufactured in Chānda. Bell-metal is an alloy made of copper mixed with zinc, tin, or pewter. Vessels for holding food are made from it, and bell-metal with a large proportion of zinc is used for the manufacture of ornaments, which are largely worn in the northern Districts. Brass ornaments are mainly worn by the aboriginal tribes.

Wood-work.

Carpentering is not usually a village industry in the Central Provinces, the work required by cultivators being often done by the blacksmith. The largest numbers of workers at this trade are found in the Districts where there are large towns, and rural Districts only return a few hundred. Chhattīsgarh is especially deficient in this respect. Wood-carving of considerable artistic merit is executed in Nāgpur and Saugor. Bamboo-workers make household matting, screens for walls,

baskets of all sizes and for all purposes, brushes, fans, sieves, and combs. Carpenters and bamboo-workers together numbered 116,000 in 1901.

Pottery.

Vessels of earthenware are used for cooking by all classes, and by the poorer ones for eating and drinking from. Other articles made of earthenware are pipe-bowls, clay dolls and images, and models of animals.

Factories and mills.

The number of cotton spinning and weaving mills in the Province in 1904 was seven, two being situated at Nāgpur, two at Hinganghāt, one at Jubbulpore, one at Pulgaon, and one at Rāj-Nāndgaon in the Nāndgaon State. Statistics of production are given below :—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1901-2.	1903-4.
Number of mills	1	3	7	7
" looms	240	805	2,144	2,401
" spindles	30,000	72,080	155,582	176,684
Average number of hands employed	1,646	4,202	10,146	9,673

The Empress Mills at Nāgpur were the first to be opened, in 1877. The Pulgaon and one of the Hinganghāt mills have only spinning apparatus, while the other five combine spinning and weaving. The seven mills contain altogether 2,401 looms and 176,684 spindles, and their aggregate capital is 97 lakhs. The aggregate out-turn of the mills in 1904 was 199,969 cwt. of yarn and 68,427 cwt. of cloth. The yarn is generally sold to weavers in the Central Provinces and also in Bengal, while the cloth, besides being disposed of locally, is sent to other Provinces of India, and that of the Empress Mills to China and Japan. Besides the mills, the Province has 100 cotton-ginning and 47 pressing factories, 65 of these being, however, not shown in the returns as they do not come within the scope of the Factories Act. These factories are situated principally in the cotton-growing Districts of Nāgpur, Wardhā, and Nimār, and the majority of them have been opened since 1891, in which year only 16 were returned. The factories contain 1,900 gins and 47 presses, and their estimated capital is 72 lakhs. The other factories include a brewery at Jubbulpore, opened in 1897; a match factory at Kotā in Bilāspur, opened in 1902; Messrs. Burn & Co.'s pottery works at Jubbulpore, started in 1892, which manufacture tiles, piping, and earthenware vessels; and a Government brick and tile factory at Warorā, turning out fire-clay bricks and tiles. A Central Gun-carriage Factory for all India was opened at Jubbulpore in 1905. The average daily number of persons employed in

factories in 1904 was 33,346. This figure, though small, has been sufficient in combination with other industries to raise the wages of daily labour in Nāgpur, Wardhā, and Nimār. The supply of unskilled labour is obtained from the local market, the lowest rates for ordinary male workmen being from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 a month.

Commerce and trade. Trade prior to annexation.

Previous to the construction of railways, the Province was isolated to a marked degree from other parts of India; large tracts of country were covered by impenetrable forest, there were few towns of any importance, and any large volume of internal traffic was impracticable except along a few main routes. The records of earlier years show that in many parts of the Province after a good harvest grain actually rotted as it lay. At the time of annexation a considerable trade had however sprung up between Nāgpur and the Narbadā valley and Bombay; grain, oilseeds, raw cotton, and the silk-bordered cloths woven in the Nāgpur plain being the staple articles of export, which were carried for hundreds of miles in country carts or on pack-bullocks. Trade was further impeded by the feeling of insecurity arising from the greed of the rulers of the State or their agents. The connexion by railway of Jubbulpore with Calcutta, and of Nāgpur with Bombay, which was effected in 1867, is the most important fact in the commercial history of the Province.

Growth of trade.

Between 1863 and 1866 the average value of exports was about $1\frac{1}{2}$ and of imports about 2 crores of rupees. Their combined value rose to $4\frac{1}{2}$ crores in 1872, $7\frac{1}{2}$ in 1882, $8\frac{1}{4}$ in 1892, and $14\frac{1}{2}$ crores in 1903–4. In the first few years of this period the large imports of railway material caused the total value of imports to exceed that of exports. But this has not happened since, except in the famine years of 1897 and 1900, when the great quantity of food-grains imported again temporarily turned the balance of trade against the Province. From 1873 to 1888 the excess value of exports over imports averaged between half a crore and a crore; from 1888 to 1896 it averaged about $1\frac{1}{2}$ crores; while in 1903–4 it was more than 3 crores, or about Rs. 2–8 per head of population.

Exports.

The value of exports in 1903–4 was 8·92 crores, or about Rs. 7–8 per head of population. Since 1863 the value of exports has increased by more than fivefold. During the last twenty years their value has doubled, while their bulk has increased from 450,000 to nearly a million tons. About half the total export trade is with Bombay Port, while of the remainder Bengal takes over a crore, Berār 77 lakhs, and

Bombay and the United Provinces about 50 lakhs each. Only 40 lakhs go to Calcutta. Of the exports, 2¾ crores or one-third of the total value consist of raw cotton, 57 lakhs (6 per cent.) of yarn and cotton piece-goods, nearly 2 crores (21 per cent.) of grain and pulse, 85 lakhs (nearly 10 per cent.) of oilseeds, and 64 lakhs (7 per cent.) of provisions.

Details of exports.

Raw cotton is, therefore, at present by far the most important product of the Province, but its pre-eminent position is entirely a feature of recent years. From 1863 to 1868, at the time of the American Civil War, the value of cotton exported rose to nearly a crore of rupees; it fell gradually until in 1883–8 the amount was only 19 lakhs, while in more recent years the demand in the European market, and the consequent rise in price, have led to an enormous expansion. The trade in Indian yarn and cotton piece-goods has also increased largely during the last decade. The exports of the former in 1903–4 were valued at 25 lakhs, and of the latter at nearly 31 lakhs, as compared with 3 lakhs and 15 lakhs in 1891. Both articles are sent mainly to other parts of India. The hand-woven silk-bordered cloths of the Nāgpur country are exported in considerable numbers. The trade in grain fluctuates largely. Of the total value of 1·92 crores exported in 1903–4, wheat contributed 111 lakhs, rice 47 lakhs, and pulses 32 lakhs. Ten years ago the wheat trade was considered to be the backbone of Provincial commerce, and the wheat-growing districts of the Narbadā valley to be the richest and most prosperous. The average exports for 1888–92 were worth nearly two crores. In 1893 the exports of rice reached a crore of rupees. This figure has not been approached, however, since 1895. Gram, *jowār*, and *urad* are also exported. Of a value of 85 lakhs of oilseeds exported in 1903–4, linseed contributed 26 lakhs and *til* or sesamum 44 lakhs. The bulk of these oilseeds exported is not much greater now than twenty years ago, but their value has risen greatly, while *til* has increased in both value and bulk at the expense of linseed. The principal article included in the remaining 15 odd lakhs is cotton-seed, which has very recently come into prominence as an export. In 1902-3 the exports of oilseeds were 135 lakhs. Of the exports of provisions the most important article is *ghī*. Other articles exported are various fruit products, such as *mahuā* flowers which are sent to Bombay, Berār, and Central India for distilling country liquor, honey, arrowroot, and *chironjī*, the fruit of the *achār* tree (*Buchanania latifolia*) used for sweetmeats. Another important industry has recently

sprung up in the export of jerked meat, which is sent to Burma. Exports of hides and skins have been regrettably large in recent years, owing to the heavy mortality of cattle in the famines. Among other important articles of export are dyes and tans, chiefly myrabolams, lac, and hemp (*san*). Exports of railway plant consist principally of wooden sleepers. The exports of wood and timber are distributed among the surrounding Provinces, Bombay being the best customer. Teak and *sāl* timber and bamboos are the chief items. Among minor articles of export may be noticed fresh fruits and vegetables, which consist chiefly of Nāgpur oranges sent in large quantities to other parts of India, and occasionally to England.

Imports.

The total imports amounted to 5·76 crores in 1903–4, or Rs. 4–14 per head of population. Since 1865 the value of imports has about trebled, while since 1881 it has increased by 60 per cent. About 2½ crores were received from Bombay Port, 79 lakhs from Bengal, 76 lakhs from Bombay Presidency, approximately 50 lakhs each from Rājputāna and the United Provinces, and 32 lakhs from Calcutta. Of the total imports, yarn and cotton piece-goods, salt, sugar, metals, provisions, grain, and oils are the most important.

Details of imports.

The demand for English yarn and cotton cloth has not as yet been adversely affected by the local mill industry, as the finer counts of thread are not produced; but imports of Indian thread and cloth are either stationary or declining. About two-thirds of the salt consumed in the Province is sea-salt from Bombay, while the northern Districts take some from the Sāmbhar Lake, and since the opening of the East Coast Railway Madras sea-salt has been imported into Chhattīsgarh. The imports of sugar have more than doubled during the last twenty years, and now amount to 37,516 tons. Refined sugar comes almost entirely from Bombay Port, and the bulk of it is probably produced in the Mauritius. The Province now obtains large quantities of *gur* or unrefined sugar from Bengal and the United Provinces. The imports of metals have doubled in the last ten, and trebled in the last twenty years, the figures for 1903–4 being the highest on record. Large imports of metals are a certain index of prosperity. Out of a total value of 54 lakhs, manufactured iron and steel account for 23, other imports of iron and steel for 16, and brass and copper for 11 lakhs. The provisions imported consist chiefly of dried fruits and nuts, coco-nuts being the most important item. Areca-nuts and chillies form the bulk of the imports under spices, while ginger, cardamoms, cloves, pepper, and

asafoetida are other articles. Rice, principally from Burma, constituted about one-sixth of the total imports of grain and pulse. During the last decade the weight of kerosene oil imported has risen from 135,000 to 292,000 cwt.

Trading centres.

The trade of the Province is now almost entirely concentrated on the railways, and the important roads are those leading from the large producing tracts to railway stations. Imports are mainly consigned to the large towns, owing to both their own demand and the facilities which they afford for distribution to retailers. Exports, however, are sent away from a larger number of stations, several small places favourably situated on main roads having an important trade. Raw cotton is principally exported from Nāgpur, Hinganghāt, Pulgaon, Kamptee, and Khandwā; grain from Nāgpur, Kamptee, Raipur, Jubbulpore, Gondiā, Saugor, Damoh, and Hardā; and metals are distributed from Nāgpur, Kamptee, and Katnī. All the large towns have a considerable import trade, and of the smaller towns Katnī, Wardhā, and Pulgaon are the most important.

Mechanism of internal trade.

A large proportion of the export trade in grain and oilseeds is conducted by a European firm, and the remainder by Mārwāri Baniās and Cutchī Muhammadans. Baniās also trade in *ghī* (clarified butter), and largely in cotton. In Chānda and Wardhā there are a number of Komatīs or Madrasi Baniās. Cutchīs conduct a large part of the import trade in cloths, salt, kerosene oil, and general merchandise, while Bombay Bohrās import stationery, glassware, small goods, iron and hardware. Pārsīs are general merchants, and deal in foreign goods, wines, and crockery. Several European companies are engaged in the timber trade. Grain for export is not usually sold in the weekly markets, the transactions at which are mainly retail; the cultivators either carry it in their own carts to the exporting stations, or small retail dealers, principally Telis, Kalārs, and Baniās, go round and buy it up in villages. Cotton is generally taken by the cultivators direct to the exporting stations.

Communications. Railway systems.

The railway systems traversing the Province are the Great Indian Peninsula and Indian Midland, the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India, the East Indian, and the Bengal-Nāgpur. Of these the Great Indian Peninsula line is now a state line, but leased to a company for working; the Indian Midland is the property of the company of that name, but is worked by the Great Indian Peninsula Company; the East Indian is a state line, but leased to a company; the Bengal-Nāgpur line

is the property of a guaranteed company; and the section of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India within the Central Provinces is a state line leased to the company.

Routes taken.

The two main routes between Bombay and Calcutta traverse the Province north and south of the Sātpurā plateau. The north-eastern line of the Great Indian Peninsula from Bombay divides at Bhusāwal junction into two branches, one going north and north-east for 339 miles to a terminus at Jubbulpore, where it meets the East Indian, and the other proceeding almost due east through Berār to Nāgpur, where the Bengal-Nāgpur line to Calcutta commences. The Jubbulpore line runs through the whole length of the Narbadā valley, comprising the Districts of Nimār, Hoshangābād, Narsinghpur, and Jubbulpore. At Khandwā, 353 miles from Bombay, a metre-gauge line worked by the Bombay, Baroda and Central India takes off and proceeds north-west through Indore to Ajmer, with a length of 29 miles in the Central Provinces. Itārsi, 464 miles from Bombay, is the junction with the Indian Midland line to Cawnpore and Agra, which runs north through Hoshangābād, the Bhopāl State, and Saugor District, while at Jubbulpore the East Indian line begins, and runs for 70 miles in the Central Provinces towards Allahābād. From Bīna, on the Indian Midland line, a branch of 163 miles runs to Katnī on the East Indian, serving the Districts of Saugor and Damoh. The Nāgpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula enters the Central Provinces at Pulgaon and runs for 70 miles through Wardhā and Nāgpur Districts to Nāgpur, 520 miles from Bombay. From Wardhā a branch of 45 miles leads to Warorā in Chānda. At Nāgpur the Bengal-Nāgpur system begins, and runs through Bhandāra, Raipur, Bilāspur, and several Feudatory States towards Calcutta, with a length of 417 miles in the Province. An extension of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway on the gauge of 2 feet 6 inches from Gondiā on the main line, 601 miles from Bombay, to connect with Jubbulpore, was opened in 1905. It passes through Bālāghāt, Mandlā, and Seonī Districts, and has branches through Seonī to Chhindwāra and to Mandlā [1], with a total length of 255 miles, thus bringing the greater part of the Sātpurā plateau within easy distance of a railway. From Raipur another narrow-gauge branch of 56 miles leads south to Dhamtari and Rājim in Raipur District; and from Bilāspur a connecting line on the broad gauge runs north for 85 miles to Katnī on the East Indian. Except where it has

been otherwise stated, all lines are on the standard gauge of 5 feet 6 inches. There are at present no double lines, but a section of the Great Indian Peninsula west of Itārsi is about to be doubled.

The lines from Bhusāwal to Nāgpur and from Jubbulpore to Allāhābād were the first to be constructed, and were opened in 1867, the Bhusāwal-Jubbulpore line following shortly afterwards in 1870. The Indian Midland line from Itārsi to Bhopāl was constructed in 1882, and the Bhopāl-Jhānsi section in 1889. The main line of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway was opened in 1888, being an extension of the Chhattīsgarh State Railway which had been constructed by Government on the metre gauge to Rāj-Nāndgaon, and was made over to the company, converted to the broad gauge, and extended to connect with Asansol on the East Indian, and subsequently direct to Calcutta. The Bīna-Katnī connexion on the Indian Midland was constructed in 1899. In 1904 the Province had thus 1,419 miles of railway open and a further 178 under construction, making a total of 1,597 miles, of which 1,257 were on the broad gauge, 29 on the metre gauge, and 311 on narrower gauges. This is equivalent to 54 square miles of country for one mile of railway in British Districts, and 73 for the Province as a whole. In 1891, 1,094 miles of broad gauge and 29 of metre gauge were open. With the exception of Betūl District on the Sātpurā plateau, the greater part of Chānda, and the southern Feudatory States, the railway communications of the Province may be said to be fairly complete. Among projected lines may be mentioned a branch of the Bengal-Nāgpur from Bilāspur to Mandlā, the embankment of which has been partially constructed as a famine relief work; an extension from Gondiā to Chānda on the same line, with a link from Bramhapurī to Nāgpur, to serve the south of Nāgpur and the north of Chānda Districts; a branch line from Chhindwāra to the Pench valley coal-fields; a line from Raipur to Vizianagram; a loop line from Nāgpur to Amraotī, from some point on which a connexion will be taken through Betūl to Itārsi; a branch line from Nāgpur to Rāmtek; and an extension of the Wardhā-Warorā line through Chānda to a point on the Nizām's State Railway in Hyderābād. The construction of a line from Warorā through Chānda to a new coal-field at Ballāpur, 6 miles from this town, has been begun by the Great Indian Peninsula Company. History.

Previous to the construction of railways, the main trunk routes of the Province were the road from Nāgpur to Jubbul- Roads.

pore through Seonī, the great eastern road from Nāgpur to Raipur and Sambalpur and on to Cuttack, the southern road from Nāgpur to Chānda through Jām and Warorā, the old Bombay road from Jubbulpore through Nimār, the Jubbulpore, Damoh, and Saugor road, the Jubbulpore, Mandlā, and Bilāspur road, and the north-western road from Nāgpur to Betūl and Itārsi. Other main routes were those from Nāgpur to Chhindwāra and Pipariā, from Seonī to Katangī and Tumsar, from Saugor to Karelī, from Nāgpur to Umrer and Mūl, and from Raipur through Dhamtarī to Jagdalpur. These latter roads were important railway feeders for some time after the construction of the through lines of rail, but they have generally been superseded by the extensions of the last two decades. The construction of the railways has entirely removed the importance of the old trunk routes, except along certain lengths where they serve as feeders. One or two of them are no longer maintained to the same standard as formerly, and with the exception of the road from Nāgpur to Jubbulpore there is now no thoroughly good trunk road in the Province. The important roads at present are those which connect rich tracts in the interior with the railways; and as the railways have frequently followed the line of trunk roads, the feeders are generally small cross-roads. During the last decade there has been a remarkable development of road communications, consequent on the amount of work undertaken for famine relief. The length of metalled roads has increased from 536 miles in 1892 to 1,646 in 1904–5, and that of embanked roads from 2,133 miles to 2,967. The total length of metalled and embanked roads is now 4,613 miles, or at the rate of one mile for 18 square miles of country in British Districts. The annual expenditure on the maintenance of these roads is 8·43 lakhs. Nearly 900 miles of surface roads are also maintained at a cost of Rs. 24,000. Surface or unembanked roads are under the charge of District councils, while all others are maintained by the Public Works department. Much progress has also been made during the last decade in developing the communications of the large *zamīndāris* and Feudatory States of Chhattīsgarh, under the superintendence of the Engineer of the specially created Chhattīsgarh States division. This territory, comprising 41,618 square miles, is the wildest and most backward portion of the Province, and was till recently almost destitute of routes fit for wheeled traffic. Since 1893, 681 miles of gravelled roads and 763 miles of surface roads have been constructed, the funds being provided by the estates through which they pass. These

roads are excluded from the totals given above. The cost of a country cart drawn by two bullocks is about Rs. 40 on an average, and the ordinary load along roads is 14 cwt.

Postal business.

The Central Provinces are included in the Central Provinces and Berār Postal Circle under a Deputy-Postmaster-General. The statistics (see Table VII) show a large advance in postal business since 1881; the number of post offices in the Province having increased from 186 to 689, of letter-boxes from 157 to 566, and of miles of postal communication from 4,465 to 8,411. More than 7 million letters were delivered in 1903–4 as against $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions in 1880–1, 6 million post-cards as against half a million, and 147,000 parcels as against 40,000. The value of money orders issued has increased from 30 to 109 lakhs. These figures relate to both the Imperial and the District post. The latter system provided postal communications in British Districts for magisterial and police purposes, the upkeep of which was not warranted under the commercial principles of the Post Office, and funds were obtained from a cess levied at the rate of one per cent. on the land revenue. In 1906 the cess was abolished, and the cost is now included in the Imperial budget. Postal establishments in Feudatory States are paid from State funds, and were also treated as part of the District Post. In 1903–4, 141 post offices and 2,554 miles of mail lines in British Districts, and 22 post offices and 922 miles of mail lines in Feudatory States, were maintained under this system.

Famine. Causes.

At present the harvests may be said to be entirely dependent on the rainfall. A complete failure of the rains, such as occurred in 1899–1900, will destroy both the harvests and cause a universal famine. Such a failure is, however, believed to be unique. The rainfall of June, July, and August is as a rule fairly reliable, and has only failed completely in 1868 and 1899. In 1902 there was a drought in August. Very heavy or excessive rain, on the other hand, during these months is naturally not infrequent, and in some Districts may occasion substantial damage to cotton and *jowār*; but there is no record of distress having arisen from this cause. The most critical period for the crops comprises the months of September and October, when about $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches should be received. This rain is necessary both for the ripening rice harvest and to enable the land to be prepared for sowing the spring grains. It is especially capricious; and while the full average is required to ensure the success of both harvests, the actual fall in one or other of these months has been more than 25 per cent. short

of the average 19 times in 33 years. Of the famines or scarcities for which information is available, those of 1833, 1886, 1896, and 1897 were caused by shortness of the late rains, while in 1899 an average fall in these months would have reduced a universal famine to local distress. It is especially to remedy the deficiencies of the rainfall in September and October that irrigation is required. If the rainfall up to the end of October has been satisfactory, the success of both harvests is assured against deficiency of rain, though showers in November or December are requisite for bumper spring crops. These, however, may still be spoilt by excessive rainfall in the winter months, which will induce rust or blight. Such excessive rain was, as will be seen, responsible for the local distress which occurred in 1819, in 1823–7 in Seonī and Mandlā, in 1854–5 in Saugor and Damoh, and in 1893, 1894, and 1895 in the northern Districts generally. The spring is, however, of far less importance than the autumn harvest, and there is also no single crop which so overshadows the rest as rice does the other autumn grains.

Historical retrospect.

The earliest scarcities of which accounts are available resulted from political disturbances rather than climatic causes. War and its effects account for distress which prevailed in the upper Narbadā valley during the years 1771, 1783, and 1809. It is recorded that in 1771 wheat sold in Narsinghpur at 10 lb. to the rupee. In 1803 a failure of the rains caused a famine in Nimār and Hoshangābād, which had already suffered greatly from the inroads of Sindhia's armies. The famine is still known in Nimār as the 'Mahākāl,' when grain sold at 1 lb. per rupee or about two or three hundred times its price in seasons of prosperity. In 1818–19 the Nāgpur country and the Districts north of the Narbadā suffered from a famine caused by the failure of the autumn rains and excessive rain during the following cold season. Acute famine prevailed for months in these localities, and in Jubbulpore wheat sold at 8 lb. to the rupee. In Nāgpur many of the poorer cultivators are reported to have sold their children into slavery. From 1823 to 1827 the Districts of Seonī and Mandlā suffered from a succession of short crops due to floods, hail, and blight, and many villages were deserted. In 1825–6, according to oral tradition, famine attended with loss of life occurred in Nāgpur, and it is said that many people died after eating the cooked food which was doled out to them at the Rājā's palace. In 1828–9 there was a famine in Raipur and Bilāspur, the price of grain rising from about 300 to 24 lb. a rupee. In 1832–3 excessive

rain followed by drought was the cause of severe distress in the Narbadā valley, the Nāgpur country, and Berār. Heavy mortality occurred in Betūl, and 5,000 people are said to have died in the city of Nāgpur. In Wardhā children were sold for 10 lb. of grain. The following year, owing to a failure of the autumn rain, the spring crop area of Jubbulpore District was left practically unsown and prices reached 16 lb. per rupee. Grain was imported by Government agency into Seonī and Mandlā. In 1834–5 a partial failure occurred in Chhattīsgarh, and in spite of the export of grain being prohibited, prices rose to 15 or 20 times their normal level. Drought in 1845 caused severe distress in Nimār and Chhattīsgarh; and in 1854–5 a visitation of rust destroyed the wheat crop of the northern Districts, and is still well remembered by the people as a parallel to the similar disaster of 1894–5. Parents sold their children in Damoh, and many deaths from starvation were recorded in Saugor. In 1868, the year of the Bundelkhand famine, the rains ended abruptly a month before the due time; but a heavy fall in September saved the situation over the greater part of the country, and acute distress was confined to the Vindhyan Districts the Wainganga rice tracts, and Chhattīsgarh. Distress was, however, severe in these areas. Hundreds of deaths were reported to have occurred from starvation, and the ordinary mortality is estimated to have been trebled. About 17 lakhs was expended on relief.

Recent famines. The famine of 1868–9 was followed by a period of years of prosperity, broken only by the failure in 1886 of the rice crop of Chhattīsgarh. From 1893 commenced the recent cycle of bad years. In that year, and in 1894 and 1895, the spring crops of the northern Districts were spoiled by excessive winter rain. In 1894 the wheat was almost entirely destroyed by rust in Saugor and Damoh, and distress ensued. Road works were opened, but the numbers on them never reached 20,000, and only about a lakh was expended on relief. Both in 1894 and 1895 the rice crop was also severely damaged on the threshing-floors by the late rain. In 1895 the monsoon stopped abruptly in the middle of September; the autumn crops were poor, and the spring harvest realized about half a normal yield on a diminished area. Four years of poor harvests thus preceded the failure of 1896, when the rains, which up to then had been plentiful and even excessive, stopped suddenly at the end of August. The effect of the drought was the destruction of the autumn crops, with the exception of irrigated rice, cotton, and *jowār*.

The spring crops were fair, but owing to the dryness of the soil only half the normal area was sown. The all-round out-turn was 56 per cent. of an average crop, but the distress was greatly aggravated by the failures of the preceding years. Severe famine prevailed throughout 1897, except in Nimār, Chānda, and Sambalpur, which partially escaped. Direct expenditure on famine relief was about 1½ crores, and indirect expenditure, famine loans, remissions of land revenue, and charitable relief made up another crore. The Provincial death-rate for the year was 69 per mille, as against 32·4 during the decade 1881–91; the mortality was especially severe during the monsoon months. Owing partly to the wide area over which this famine extended, and partly to the deficiency of transport, prices ruled high, the extreme point reached being 12½ lb. per rupee in Bālāghāt. The largest number relieved was 703,000, or 8·5 per cent. of the population affected, on the 29th May. The famine of 1897 was followed by two years of fairly good harvests, but in 1899 occurred the most complete failure of the rainfall ever known. Only five Districts received more than half their average rainfall, and five received only a third. The wheat crop was above half an average in six of the northern Districts; but over the rest of the Province both crops failed completely, the all-round out-turn for the Province being only a quarter of the normal. Famine prevailed in all Districts from October, 1899, to November, 1900, and the deficiency of the rainfall led to severe epidemics of cholera, dysentery, diarrhoea, and other diseases resulting from bad water. The administration of this famine was extremely liberal and efficient, the direct expenditure being nearly 4½ crores, while indirect expenditure and remissions of the revenue added another crore and 30 lakhs. The numbers on relief exceeded 2¼ millions, or 23 per cent. of the population of the affected tract, in July, 1900, and the total number of units relieved for one day was 556 millions. In spite of the greater severity of the famine, prices were generally lower by from 1 to 3 lb. per rupee than in 1897, the imports of Bengal rice assisting materially to keep them down. The highest price for the cheapest food-grain was 14½ lb. per rupee in Chhindwāra. The mortality for the year was 57 per mille, and was greatly aggravated by diseases due to the scarcity and bad quality of water. After two more fairly good seasons a prolonged break in the rains between the last week of July and the last week of August, 1902, caused a failure of the rice crop in Raipur and the Waingangā valley.

Famine was confined to Raipur, which reaped only a third of an average crop.

Apart from the direct organization of relief, the remission of revenue, and the grant of loans to agriculturists for seed and cattle, the protective measures taken by Government consist of the extension of irrigation and communications. Irrigation is as yet in its infancy in the Province, and though considerable strides have been made in the last few years, it can at best only slightly mitigate the effects of a failure of the rains. The opening up of the Province by railways, so as to provide cheap transport to tracts liable to be affected, has been proceeding rapidly during the last two decades, and with the completion of the Sātpurā line will be practically complete so far as British Districts are concerned. In 1897 grain had to be imported by Government agency into parts of Mandlā, Bālāghāt, and Sironchā, and these areas with the exception of the small Sironchā tract will be protected by the Sātpurā railway. As regards the direct administration of relief, a revised Famine Code has been compiled, embodying the experience gained in the two great famines, and detailing the whole course of procedure to be followed. Famine programmes of works for each District are drawn up and annually revised, each programme containing large public works, village works, and forest works, which are especially suitable for the primitive tribes. The programme provides work for six months for not less than 20 per cent. of the population of the District, except in tracts adequately protected by irrigation, where a half of this provision is held to be sufficient. Protective measures.

The administration of the Central Provinces is conducted by a Chief Commissioner, who is the chief controlling revenue and executive authority. He is assisted by three secretaries, two under secretaries and an assistant secretary. The area of British territory comprised in the Province is 82,093 square miles, with a population of 9,216,185, and it is divided for administrative purposes into four revenue Divisions, each controlled by a Commissioner. The average area of a Division is 20,500 square miles, and the population 2,250,000 persons. Three of the Divisions contain five Districts, and one (Chhattīsgarh) three. The Commissioner of the Division supervises the working of all departments of Government in his Division, except those outside the sphere of the Local Administration, through the Deputy-Commissioners of Districts, who are his immediate subordinates. Till recently the Commissioners also exercised civil and criminal Administration.

jurisdiction. The principal heads of Provincial departments are the Commissioner of Settlements and Land Records, the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and Sanitary Commissioner, the Inspector-General of Police, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Director of Public Instruction, the Commissioner of Excise and Miscellaneous Revenue, who is also Inspector-General of Registration, and the Director of Agriculture. The Comptroller and the Deputy-Postmaster-General represent Imperial departments under the Government of India. Berār is now included in the jurisdiction of all these officers.

Deputy-Commissioners.

The Province is divided into 18 Districts[1], with an average area of 4,561 square miles and a population of 512,010 persons. Each District is in charge of a Deputy-Commissioner, who is the chief revenue authority and also District Magistrate, and exercises the usual functions of a District officer. The District forests are managed by a Forest officer, usually a member of the Imperial Forest Service, over whom the Deputy-Commissioner has certain powers of supervision, particularly in regard to matters affecting the welfare of the people. Each District has a Civil Surgeon, who is generally also Superintendent of the District jail, and whose work is supervised by the Deputy-Commissioner in respect of village sanitation, the registration of vital statistics, and the financial management of the jail and dispensaries. The Deputy-Commissioner is also Marriage Registrar, and manages the estates in his District which are under the Court of Wards.

Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners.

In his revenue and criminal work the Deputy-Commissioner is assisted by (*a*) one or more Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Indian Civil Service; (*b*) one or more Extra-Assistant Commissioners or members of the Provincial Civil Service, usually natives of India, but including a few Europeans and Eurasians; and (*c*) by *tahsīldārs* and *naib-tahsīldārs*, or members of the Subordinate service who are nearly always natives of India. The number of Assistant Commissioners on ordinary duty in 1904 was 21, and of Extra-Assistant Commissioners 100, giving 7 officers to each District[2]. Recently the subdivisional system prevailing in

[1] In 1905-6 the new District of Drug was constituted from portions of Raipur and Bilāspur Districts; but, at the same time, Sambalpur District was transferred to Bengal. The total number of Districts therefore remains at 18.

[2] These figures include the civil judicial staff, now designated District and Subordinate Judges.

most other Provinces has been introduced into the Central Provinces. According to this, an Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner is placed in charge of a subdivision consisting of one or two *tahsīls*, with the powers of a Subdivisional Magistrate under the Criminal Procedure Code, extended powers under the Revenue Law, and authority to supervise the revenue and police officials. In 1904, 22 subdivisions were formed, the Subdivisional officers with one or two exceptions residing at the District head-quarters but touring in their subdivisions during the open season.

Tahsīls, tahsīldārs, and *naib-tahsīldārs.*

The District is divided for administrative purposes into two or more *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and *naib-* or deputy-*tahsīldar* with a *tahsīl* office, and except in the case of head-quarter *tahsīls* a sub-treasury. The number of *tahsīls* in 1906 was 53, or an average of three to a District. The average area of a *tahsīl* is 1,550 square miles, and the population 173,890. The *tahsīldār* is the Deputy-Commissioner's right hand in his revenue and executive work; and, besides being responsible for the collection of the revenue and the distribution and repayment of land improvement and agricultural loans, he makes inquiries and carries out orders in matters of revenue law and administration. The *tahsīldār* is also a criminal magistrate, but has usually no civil work. The *naib-tahsīldār* has no special functions apart from those of the *tahsīldār*. He is usually not a magistrate, but sometimes tries civil cases.

Village officers: *lambardārs* and *mukaddams.*

In each village one or more *lambardārs*[1] are the representatives of the proprietary body or *mālguzārs* when the ownership of the village is divided into shares, and their duty is to collect and pay in the Government revenue. The *lambardār*, or, if there are several, one of them, is also *mukaddam* or executive headman of the village. If he is non-resident, he must appoint an agent or *mukaddam gomāshta* to act for him. The *mukaddam* exercises the usual duties of a village headman, but has no magisterial powers, and except by the exercise of his personal authority, which, however, is frequently considerable, cannot coerce or restrain the residents.

Revenue inspectors and *patwāris.*

Each District has a Land Record staff, controlled under the Deputy-Commissioner by a native superintendent, and consisting of two grades of officials, revenue inspectors and *patwāris*. There is on an average one *patwāri* to 8 villages, and a revenue inspector to every 25 *patwāris*, the total number

[1] The word *lambardār* is a corruption from the English word 'number.'

of revenue inspectors being 205, and of *patwāris* 4,927. The *patwāri* is the village surveyor and accountant, and his office is an ancient one, but he is now a paid and trained Government servant, instead of being a dependent of the landowner as he formerly was. Each revenue inspector is in charge of a number of *patwāris*' circles, and his duties consist in training the *patwāris* in surveying and the preparation of the annual returns. The Land Record staff also furnish a most valuable agency for the supply of accurate information in times of anxiety for the harvest, and for the organization of famine relief when this becomes necessary.

The Feudatory States.

The Province contains 15 Feudatory States, covering an area of 31,188 square miles with a population of 1,631,140 persons. One of the States, Makrai, lies in Hoshangābād District; the remainder are situated in the Chhattīsgarh Division, to the different Districts of which they were formerly attached. Their relations with Government are controlled by a Political Agent. The States vary greatly in size and importance, Saktī, the smallest, having an area of 138 square miles, and Bastar, the largest, of 13,062. They are administered by hereditary chiefs, who hold on conditions of loyalty and good government set forth in patents and acknowledgements of fealty, but are nominally free from direct interference save in the case of death sentences, which require the Chief Commissioner's confirmation[1]. But, as a matter of fact, the Government has exercised a very large amount of control, owing mainly to the frequency with which the States have been taken under direct management, because of either the minority or the misconduct of the chief. During a minority the affairs of the State are generally managed by a Superintendent under the control of the Political Agent. In some cases also the assent of Government to the accession of a new chief is made contingent on his employing an officer nominated by Government as his *Dīwān* or minister. The Superintendents and *Dīwāns* appointed by Government are usually officers specially selected from the Provincial or Subordinate service according to the size of the State. In practice, as many of the State officials have received a legal training in Government service, the ordinary criminal and civil law are applied, magisterial and civil powers being delegated by the chief. In several States a cadastral survey has been carried out and the system of revenue settlement prescribed for

[1] In eight States sentences for imprisonment for over seven years also require confirmation.

British Districts introduced. The revenue is settled with the village headmen, who have no proprietary rights, but receive a drawback on the collections. The States pay a tribute to Government which amounted in the aggregate to 2·43 lakhs in 1904.

Legislation and justice. Legislative authority. Legislation since 1880.

The legislative authority for the Central Provinces is the Council of the Governor-General of India for the purpose of making Laws and Regulations. The principal Acts passed since 1880 which specially affect the Central Provinces, excluding repealed Acts, are the following:—The Central Provinces Land Revenue Act, 1881, amended by supplementary Acts in 1889 and 1898; the Central Provinces Tenancy Act, 1898, amended by Act XVI of 1899; the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act of 1883; the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act, II of 1904; the Central Provinces Government Wards Act, XXII of 1885, amended in 1899; the Central Provinces Municipal Act, XVI of 1903; and the Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act of 1889, amended by Act XI of 1902.

Civil justice.

By the Civil Courts Act of 1904 the civil has finally been separated from the executive department. The civil staff consists of four Divisional Judges having jurisdiction in each Division, 18 District Judges in Districts, 30 Subordinate Judges, and 50 Munsifs. *Tahsīldārs* and *naib-tahsīldars* try rent suits, but rarely exercise other civil powers. The court of a Munsif has original jurisdiction up to Rs. 500, and that of a Subordinate Judge up to Rs. 5,000. The District Judge has unlimited original jurisdiction except in proceedings under the Indian Divorce Act, which lie in the court of the Divisional Judge. Appeals from Munsifs and Subordinate Judges up to Rs. 1,000 lie in the court of the District Judge, and above that in the court of the Divisional Judge. Appeals from the District Judge up to Rs. 5,000 are heard in the courts of the Divisional Judges, and above that in the court of the Judicial Commissioner. The Judicial Commissioner is the highest court of civil appeal, and except in cases against European British subjects, when the High Court of Bombay has jurisdiction, the highest court of criminal appeal. He is assisted by an Additional Judicial Commissioner for the Central Provinces, and one for Berār.

Criminal justice.

The administration of criminal justice was formerly entirely in the hands of Commissioners and of the District staff. Commissioners have now no criminal powers as such, and their place as Sessions Judges has been taken by Divisional Judges. Deputy-Commissioners are also District Magis-

trates, and have power to try all offences not punishable with death. In the more important Districts selected Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners are also invested with this power. Otherwise these officers usually exercise first-class magisterial powers. *Tahsīldārs* are usually second-class Magistrates, with power to impose sentences of whipping. In addition to the stipendiary Magistrates, a number of non-official native gentlemen have been appointed Honorary Magistrates. The criminal judiciary includes the Judicial Commissioner's court, which is a High Court for the Central Provinces, four courts of Session, 18 courts of District Magistrates, 64 courts of Magistrates of the first class, 76 of the second class, and 46 of the third class, or 209 in all. These figures include 78 benches of Honorary Magistrates, with 260 members. Appeals from Magistrates of the second and third classes lie to the District Magistrate, while certain other first-class Magistrates have also been invested with the power of hearing appeals. Appeals from Magistrates of the first class and from District Magistrates lie to the Court of Session, and from the Court of Session to the Judicial Commissioner.

Civil litigation.

The marked features of the statistics of civil litigation (Table VIII) are the very large increases in the number of suits for the first twenty-five years after the constitution of the Province, and the stationary or declining state of litigation in the next fifteen years. In 1862 the total number of suits filed was 24,666. They had increased to 89,903 in 1881, and to 112,665 in 1886. In subsequent years there have been considerable decreases, and in 1904 the total was 79,455. The character of litigation has been substantially the same throughout this period, the large majority of suits, amounting in 1904 to 69 per cent. of the total, being for the recovery of money or movable property. Of the other classes suits for immovable property constitute 6 per cent. of the total, and those under the rent law 15 per cent. Suits are generally of very trifling value, 59 per cent. of the total not exceeding Rs. 50 and only 4 per cent. being above Rs. 500. During the decade ending 1900 the average number of appeals filed annually was 6,960, or 7 per cent. of the number of suits. Of these, 652 or 9 per cent. of the total were filed in the Court of the Judicial Commissioner, 370 or 5 per cent. in the Divisional Courts, and 5,938 or 85 per cent. in the District Courts.

Criminal cases.

The general conclusion indicated by the statistics of crime (Table IX) during the forty years for which they are available is that the number of offences committed annually has

remained remarkably constant, allowing for variations due to abnormal conditions such as famine. The number of persons annually brought to trial has been about 40,000. In 1866 it was 41,700, the average for the decade ending 1890 was 39,200, and that for the decade ending 1900 nearly 45,000, the last figures being increased by the abnormal statistics of crime in three famine years. The statistics of the last few years show an apparent decrease in crime, the number of persons tried in 1904 being only 35,000. The decrease is principally in offences against property, only 8,000 persons being tried under this head in 1904, as against an average of 13,700 for the decade ending 1890, and 19,000 for that ending 1900. This decrease may be partly real, but is also to be accounted for by recent orders forbidding the investigation of petty offences by the police. On the other hand, offences against special and local laws have increased from about 8,000 to 11,000, on account of the more rigorous enforcement of sanitary and other regulations in towns. Murders and cognate offences show some increase in recent years, while rape and dacoity have decreased.

Registration. The average number of registration offices open during 1881–90 was 76, and the number of documents registered 24,107, the corresponding figures for 1891–1900 being 88 and 31,947, and for the year 1904 90 and 22,351 respectively. The Deputy-Commissioner is *ex officio* District Registrar. Each *tahsīl* has a sub-registration office in charge of a special salaried sub-registrar, and where the work is heavy another office exists in the interior of the *tahsīl*. The department is under the control of an Inspector-General, and there are two Registration Inspectors for the Province.

Finance. Sources of revenue under native rule. The main source of government income in the Central Provinces has always been the land revenue, but under Marāthā rule numerous petty imposts were added on all branches of trade and industry. These embraced a duty on home produce passing from one part of the country to another, or beyond the frontier, and on foreign merchandise in transit, and numerous other imposts on all articles produced, such as taxes on the stamping of cloths, on tobacco, sugar, cotton, silk, turmeric, and *mahuā*, and on working artisans, as oil-pressers, fishermen, butchers, and tanners; a tax on contracts or licences for the vending of spirituous liquors; a cess on houses, intended to fall particularly on that part of the population not engaged in agriculture; and numerous petty taxes of different kinds, among which may be mentioned

a tax on the remarriage of widows, one-fourth of the sale-proceeds of houses, dues on the playing of musical instruments at weddings, and on the use of red powder at the Holī, a fourth of debts recovered by civil action, a tax on gambling, a special tax on the marriages of Baniās, and others. This multiplicity of small imposts cannot but have been irksome and harassing to the people to the last degree. The greater number of them were abolished on the commencement of British administration, and in the few which were retained can be recognized the germs of our principal sources of revenue outside the land.

Provincial settlements. The scheme of Provincial finance was introduced from 1871 to 1872, with the object of enlarging the powers and responsibilities of the Local Governments in respect to expenditure in some civil departments. The method first adopted was to make an annual grant from Imperial revenues to the Provincial Government for the net expenditure in those departments which had been transferred to its control. Gradually the system was introduced of transferring to the Provincial budget the income and expenditure of those departments of administration for which the Provincial Government was mainly responsible; while the contribution from the Province to the Imperial exchequer was paid in the form of a share of the income of the great receiving departments, so that the burden on the Province might increase or diminish according to the fluctuations in its own resources. This object has not, however, been attained in the Central Provinces in recent years, owing to the disorganization caused by famine.

1882–7. The average receipts and expenditure of Provincial funds during the quinquennium 1882–7 were 76 and 75·3 lakhs respectively. Provincial receipts represent only the share of the revenue under different heads which is credited to Provincial funds. In this settlement the receipts and charges under Forests, Excise, Assessed Taxes, Stamps, Registration, and the refunds of these revenues were divided equally between the Imperial and Provincial Governments, while those under Provincial Rates, Law and Justice, and Minor departments were made wholly Provincial. The receipts from Land Revenue were nearly equally divided, while the greater part of the expenditure was debited to Provincial funds.

1887–92. During the next period of five years the receipts and expenditure averaged 75·2 and 75 lakhs respectively. For the previous fifteen years the revenue from Excise and Stamps had steadily increased, and this period also witnessed substantial increments in Land Revenue, Forests, and Assessed Taxes.

The budgeted receipts and expenditure for the quinquennial period from 1892–3 were 78·8 lakhs; but owing to the series of failures of crops, the average receipts during its currency were 77·8 lakhs and the expenditure was 81·9 lakhs. Famine conditions led to the next settlement being made for the year 1897–8 only. Provincial funds received half of the receipts from Land Revenue, Assessed Taxes, Forests and Registration, a fourth of those from Excise and three-fourths from Stamps, the balance in each case going to the Imperial Government, while the receipts and expenditure from the other departments mentioned remained Provincial. The Provincial revenue was estimated at 84·4 lakhs (including a contribution of 3·7 lakhs from Imperial funds) and the expenditure at the same figure. These estimates, however, were not realized owing to famine, and equilibrium was only attained by a contribution of 20 lakhs from Imperial funds. 1892–1906.

In view of the special circumstances of the Province, and the recurrence of famine, the settlement of 1897–8 was extended up to 1905–6, when a fresh settlement of a quasi-permanent nature was made for the Central Provinces together with Berār. According to this, Provincial funds obtain half of the receipts from Land Revenue, Stamps, Excise, Assessed Taxes, and Forests, and the whole of those from Registration and Provincial Rates. The whole of the expenditure on Land Revenue and Registration is debited to Provincial funds, and a half of that on Stamps, Excise, Assessed Taxes, and Forests. A fixed annual assignment of 27 lakhs is made to Provincial funds from the Imperial share of Land Revenue. The estimated Provincial income of the Central Provinces and Berār for the year 1906–7 is 189 lakhs, and the estimated expenditure 188 lakhs. Present settlement.

The total revenue raised in the Central Provinces under heads wholly or partly Provincial in 1903–4 (Table X A) amounted to 164·7 lakhs. The main items included were, in lakhs of rupees—Land Revenue 83·9, Stamps 14·5, Excise 25·6, Provincial Rates 11·3, Assessed Taxes 3, Forests 13·9, Registration 0·9, Law and Justice 1·2, Jails 1·3, Police and Pounds 1·7, and other sources of revenue 7·3 lakhs. Out of the total revenue of 164·7 lakhs, 116·2 lakhs was credited to Provincial funds, including contributions of 36·5 lakhs from Imperial funds. Heads of Provincial revenue.

The total amount expended in the Province under the several heads of Provincial expenditure in 1903–4 (Table X B) was 146·43 lakhs, of which 123·6 lakhs was debited Heads of Provincial expenditure.

to Provincial funds. The main heads[1] were—Charges in respect of collection of Revenue 32 lakhs, General Administration 7·7, Law and Justice 16·3, Police 16·1, Education 8·9, Medical 5·1, Pensions and Miscellaneous Civil Charges 20·4, and Civil Public Works 30·3 lakhs. Charges in respect of collection include the administration of the Land Revenue, Stamps, Excise, Assessed Taxes, Forests, and Registration departments. During the four years ending March 1904, 9·27 lakhs from Imperial revenues have been expended on 'major' and 3·74 lakhs from Provincial revenues on 'minor' irrigation works. Ecclesiastical charges (Rs. 64,000) and territorial and political pensions to representatives of former ruling families and others (2·27 lakhs) are solely Imperial heads of expenditure. All heads of expenditure have increased in the last few years, the pay of the Commission having been raised while its numbers have increased, and large additions having been made to the strength of the Provincial and Subordinate services. Famine relief is ordinarily a charge on Provincial funds; but in view of the large outlay and depletion of the Provincial balance, the whole cost of famine since 1894 (except during the years 1894–5 and 1898–9) has been met from Imperial revenues. The direct expenditure on famine between 1894 and 1904 amounted to 6·13 crores, while additions on account of loss of revenue, indirect charges, and irrecoverable advances make up the total cost of famine during this period to 8·76 crores. Provincial expenditure on the prevention of plague amounted to 5·34 lakhs from 1898 to 1904.

Land tenures and land revenue. Tenures at commencement of British rule.

The commencement of British rule found most villages of the open country in the hands of lessees (*pātels* or *thekādārs*), who held farms of the village land revenue from Government, generally for short periods, the leases being given for single villages. Villages so managed were collectively known as the *khālsa*. The hills and forests surrounding the plains were parcelled out into estates held by hereditary chieftains called *zamīndārs* or *jāgīrdārs*. These generally held on a feudal or service tenure, paying a nominal revenue, but being responsible for the maintenance of order and for the protection of the lowlands. A third class of villages was held free of revenue by persons or religious foundations to whom they had been assigned.

Grant of

At the long-term settlements made immediately after the

[1] The figures in this paragraph differ from those contained in Table X B, as they show the whole expenditure of the departments and not only the expenditure debited to Provincial funds.

constitution of the Province in 1861, it was decided to recognize as full proprietors all persons in possession of villages, whether as lessees, *zamīndārs*, or revenue-free grantees. The reasons which prompted this declaration of policy are not set forth in the documents containing it. But they appear to have been based on the same belief that led to the permanent settlement of Bengal, that is to say, that the development of the country could best be assured by a class of landlords possessing as nearly as possible a fee simple in their estates. Fifteen of the *zamīndāris* were considered to be of sufficient importance to warrant their being constituted Feudatory States. The estates in the northern Districts which had come under British rule thirty-six years earlier than the rest of the Province had at the time of the settlements in 1863 already lost most of their distinctive features, and were simply settled with the landlord, village by village, as an ordinary proprietor. The estates in Bhandāra and Bālāghāt Districts, many though not all of which were of recent origin, were settled at a favourable revenue assessed on the whole estate as a unit, but their owners received no patent, and hold as ordinary proprietors, their estates being partible and alienable. The holders of the other *jāgīrs* and *zamīndāris* in Hoshangābād and Chhindwāra, Chānda, and the Chhattīsgarh Districts were similarly assessed to a single payment at a favourable proportion of the 'assets,' and either then or subsequently received patents declaring their estates inalienable, heritable by the rule of primogeniture, and not liable to partition, though the legal effect of these restrictions is not quite free from doubt. In the villages of the *khālsa* the effect of the grant of proprietary rights to the headmen was much wider than in the *zamīndāris*, and converted a leasehold into practically a freehold tenure, the proprietors of villages so created being called *mālguzārs*. The grant of transferable rights and the resulting increase in their credit has, however, not been an unmixed boon to the village proprietors. Not much accustomed to forethought or capable in business, many of them borrowed up to the limit of their means, only to find when a series of bad harvests supervened that they could not pay their debts, and must relinquish their estates to the moneylender. The expropriation of the hereditary village proprietors has engaged the anxious attention of Government; and under the new Tenancy Act of 1898, it is provided that no landowner can alienate his village without retaining a cultivating occupancy right in his home-farm land, unless the transfer without reservation has been previously sanctioned by Government. In many

Proprietary rights.

of the *zamīndāri* and other large estates the tenure of inferior proprietor was conferred on farmers of villages of long standing, in order to protect them against ejectment. Subsequently to the grant of proprietary right a new tenure has been devised with the same object, that of protected status '*thekādār* or farmer.'

The *mālguzāri* tenure is subject to partition according to Hindu law; and the most recent statistics show that the ownership of 27,575 villages is shared between 94,575 persons, giving an average of 3·4 shares for each village.

Revenue-free grants. The class of revenue-free grantees hold on different conditions, some grants having been made wholly free of revenue and others on a quit-rent, both classes being in some cases granted in perpetuity, in others for a term, as, for example, a number of lives. Such grants are resumed on expiry of the term of the grant, alienation of the property by the grantee, or breach of the conditions on which the grant was made. The amount of land held on revenue-free or quit-rent tenure in 1903–4 was 2,662 square miles, and the amount of revenue alienated 4·28 lakhs.

Forest and *ryotwāri* lands. Of the whole area of the Province, 31,188[1] square miles are included in the Feudatory States, 16,796 square miles in the *zamīndāri* area held under custom of primogeniture, and 48,906 square miles in the *mālguzāri* area held under ordinary Hindu law. The remaining area, amounting to 16,391 square miles, represents the forest estate held by the Government as direct proprietor. This tract consists of the waste and forest area reserved after the allotment to villages of sufficient land for their requirements, the proportion thus given being usually twice the cultivated area. For a time a certain quantity of Government waste land was sold outright, free of land revenue though not of cesses, the amount of land thus permanently alienated being 213 square miles. In recent years, the policy has been adopted of setting apart any excess of waste land not required as 'reserved' forest for colonization on the *ryotwāri* system. The total area held on *ryotwāri* tenure in 1903–4 was 2,571 square miles. But of this only 459,268 acres or 718 square miles were actually occupied for cultivation and assessed to revenue.

Proprietor's home-farm lands and tenants. Of the village lands held in *mālguzāri* or ordinary proprietary right, the village waste or forest, subject to certain easements of the tenants, belongs to the proprietors, who also

[1] The figures in this paragraph have been adjusted on account of the transfers to Bengal.

own demesne lands amounting to 19 per cent. of the whole area occupied for cultivation. The remaining area is held by different classes of subordinate proprietors or tenants with varying rights. The first class is that known as *mālik-makbūza* or plot-proprietor, who pays revenue to Government through the proprietor of the village and has complete transferable and heritable right. Only 4 per cent. of the occupied area in the *khālsa* is held by this tenure. Next to the *mālik-makbūza* the 'absolute-occupancy' tenure is the most privileged. This is heritable and transferable, subject to pre-emption on the part of the landlord, and includes fixity of rent for the term of settlement. Both *mālik-makbūza* and absolute-occupancy rights were conferred at the same time as those of proprietors, and are not capable of being acquired. Absolute-occupancy tenants hold 12 per cent. of the whole area. The status which is now considered to confer the necessary measure of protection, and which can be acquired at any time, is that of an occupancy tenant. The rent of an occupancy tenant is fixed at settlement, and is liable to enhancement by a Revenue officer at intervals of not less than ten years, on proof that it is inadequate. His tenure is heritable by direct succession, or by collaterals resident in the village, but under the recent amendment to the law is not transferable except to an heir or a co-sharer, or by a sub-lease for one year. Occupancy rights could formerly be alienated with the landlord's consent, and the change has been made with a view to the protection of this class of tenants from expropriation for debt. These rights were till recently acquired by twelve years' continuous possession of the land; but this rule has been abrogated, and they are now obtained only by a payment to the proprietor of a premium of two and a half years' rental. Occupancy tenants hold 30 per cent. of the whole area. The ordinary or non-occupancy tenants have been holding until lately almost at the pleasure of their landlords, and in some tracts have been severely rack-rented. But the recent Tenancy Act (XI of 1898) has conferred on them a very substantial measure of protection. Their rents, like those of the superior classes, are now fixed at settlement and the Settlement officer has power to reduce exorbitant rents. The rent can be enhanced at intervals of seven years after settlement, but the tenant can apply to a Revenue officer to have a fair rent fixed. As in the case of occupancy tenants and for the same reasons, the right of transfer has now been withdrawn from ordinary tenants. The tenure is heritable in direct succession, but not by collaterals unless they are co-sharers in the holding. Ordinary

tenants hold 31 per cent. of the occupied area. There remains the class of village service tenants, who hold their land rent-free or at a reduced rent on condition of rendering customary service. They possess 1 per cent. of the occupied area.

Land revenue at the commencement of British administration.

The Central Provinces have been constituted so recently, and are made up of tracts differing so widely in their previous history, that no estimate of the land revenue previous to the cession of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories and the simultaneous commencement of the regency in Nāgpur can be attempted. At this date, 1817–18, the revenue of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories[1] was 28½ lakhs, that of Nāgpur[2] 21 lakhs, and that of Chhattīsgarh[3] 3·6 lakhs. If to this we add the earliest available figures for Nimār (Rs. 93,000) and Sambalpur (1·1 lakhs), a total of 55·1 lakhs is arrived at.

The Saugor and Nerbudda Territories.

Previous to their cession the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories had been harassed by constant war and ground down by exceedingly heavy taxation. A system of short leases ruled, and villages were given to the highest bidders. The headmen had to content themselves with a tenth of the profits, and the hereditary families were displaced by outside speculators. Short-term settlements were made at the commencement of British rule; and in the belief that the benefits conferred by a settled government should enable the people to pay more, an abortive attempt was made to maintain and even enhance the revenue handed over to us by the Bhonsla government. Twenty years after the cession the revenue had fallen from 28½ to 24 lakhs; and in 1836–7, the necessity for substantial abatements having been fully recognized, a twenty years' settlement was made in which the demand was fixed at 22¼ lakhs. On its expiration, and after the dislocation caused by the Mutiny, these Districts in common with the rest of the Province were settled for thirty years.

The Nāgpur Division.

Nāgpur was under British administration from 1818 to 1830, when it was restored to native rule till 1854. Under the Marāthās the assessment was made annually, and the amount was fixed in the first place in the aggregate for the *pargana* or small subdivision, and then distributed among the villages by the *pargana* officer in consultation with the headmen. Between 1818 and 1830, triennal settlements were substituted for annual settlements, and the administration was considerably improved.

[1] The Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Divisions, excluding Chhindwāra and Nimār.

[2] The Nāgpur Division and Chhindwāra.

[3] Raipur, Bilāspur, and Drug.

When the Districts were handed back, the revenue had been raised from 21 to 26½ lakhs. The subsequent period of Marāthā administration was extremely lax, numerous assignments were made, and much of the revenue was appropriated by the officials. At the cession in 1854 the demand had fallen to 23 lakhs. Summary revisions were made after the cession, and replaced by a long-term settlement in 1860.

Chhattīsgarh.

The Chhattīsgarh Districts had enjoyed for many centuries a peaceful and patriarchal government under the Haihaivansi Rājput dynasty, until this was subverted by the Marāthās in the eighteenth century. The Haihaivansis were content to accept service in lieu of a portion of their revenue, and do not appear to have felt a want of money which would induce them to rack-rent their subjects. To this must be added the fact that the country, owing to its isolation, was untouched by foreign invaders, while at the same time the absence of any means of transport made grain unsaleable in years of plenty. The result was that the country paid an extraordinarily low revenue, and has continued to do so up to the present time. Between 1818 and 1830 this territory was admirably administered by Colonel Agnew, who, while retaining the annual settlements previously in force, effected such improvements in the system of collection as to raise the revenue from 3·6 to 3·9 lakhs, while removing all its oppressive features. After its restoration to native rule the country fared pretty well, and would have greatly improved had it not been for scarcities in 1835 and 1845, which ruined a large number of villages. In spite of this, however, the revenue continued to increase, and at the escheat in 1854 had risen to over 4 lakhs. From 1854 to 1862 triennial settlements were made, and the revenue was raised to 4·6 lakhs.

The thirty years' settlements subsequent to 1863.

In 1863 and the following years long-term settlements were carried out throughout the whole Province, being made for thirty years in 13 Districts, for twenty years in 4, and for twelve years in Sambalpur. This settlement marks a great epoch in the history of land revenue administration, as it witnessed the creation of the system of proprietary and cultivating tenures described above, and was accompanied by the first cadastral survey of the village lands. The average proportion of the proprietors' income or 'assets' taken as revenue in all Districts was 62 per cent. The total enhancement of revenue was only 7 lakhs or from 53 to 60 lakhs, and in several Districts the demand was reduced. The procedure of the settlements contemplated such an adjustment and enhancement of the rental of the tenants as would be in agreement with the new revenue.

But in practice the rental was substantially enhanced only in eight Districts, while in nine the increase was under 10 per cent.

Currency of the thirty years' settlement.

During the currency of the thirty years' settlement the Province enjoyed a period of almost unbroken agricultural prosperity. Shortly after its commencement the railway was opened from Bombay to Nāgpur and Jubbulpore, producing an immediate large increase in the demand for produce and a rise in its value. When the course of prices was examined at the recent revision it was found that in ten Districts the price of the staple grains had doubled, thus producing a decrease of 50 per cent. in the real burden of the revenue. Between the thirty years' settlement and 1893-4 the cropped area increased by 29 per cent., while the rental of the tenants had been raised in 16 Districts by 29 lakhs by the proprietors themselves. The benefits of this great increase of wealth had been enjoyed for a long period of years by the tenants and proprietors, the Government obtaining no fraction of the proportion to which it was legitimately entitled.

The recent settlements. The soil-unit system.

The new settlements began in 1885 with Sambalpur. They were preceded by an accurate cadastral survey, and a detailed record of tenures, rent, and character of cultivation for every field in the village. In addition, a list was drawn up showing for every field the quality of its soil, and its position whether favourable or unfavourable for cultivation. In every District a number of soils of different quality and varying productiveness, often amounting to ten, twelve, or even more, were distinguished, most of these being known to the people and designated by their vernacular names. Besides this, the position of each field was taken into account as far as this affected its productive capacity. In order to arrive at a correct valuation of land, a system was devised by which each different soil was represented by a proportionate numerical factor of value, and the factor was increased or diminished in a fixed ratio for each different position in which a field might lie. This numerical factor was considered to be the equivalent of the same number of 'soil-units,' and the system is called the 'soil-unit' system. The proportion by which the rental generally could be enhanced on the score of rise in prices and increased cultivation was first determined; the average rent now paid by one 'soil-unit' was obtained by dividing the total number of 'soil-units' contained by all fields in the village into the rental of the village; the rent which one 'soil-unit' would pay according to the percentage of enhancement was

calculated, the result being known as the 'unit-rate'; and the rent for each field or holding was then deduced by multiplying this figure by the number of 'soil-units' contained in the field or holding. The process is, however, in practice not merely mechanical, nearly every village being inspected by the Settlement officer, while different rates of enhancement are taken for different groups of villages, and then again varied for individual villages. When the deduced rent, or that which each holding should be called on to pay according to its capacity, has been calculated, the existing rent is compared with it, and if the enhancement would be too large a lower one is fixed. The rents of all tenants were fixed in this manner; and the rental value of the home farm of the proprietor or *mālguzār* was similarly calculated by the 'soil-unit' system, as a rule, according to the 'unit-rate' fixed for the village. Any income which the proprietor might enjoy from forest grass or fruit trees on the village waste, or other extraneous sources, was further included at a low valuation and with a large margin for fluctuations. The total of rents, rental value of home farm, and miscellaneous or *siwai* income, constitutes the proprietor's income or 'assets' of the village. The Settlement officer then proceeded to determine the share of the 'assets' which was to be taken as revenue.

Enhancement of rents and revenue.

The average increase in the rent roll over that at the previous settlement was 55 per cent., the highest rate of increase being 107 per cent. in Bilāspur, where there had been a large extension of cultivation. The actual increase of rents at revision was usually much less than this, as all enhancements made by the proprietors themselves during the currency of settlement have to be deducted from it. The actual increase in rents at settlement varied from 1 per cent. in Mandlā to 39 per cent. in Sambalpur, the average being 14 per cent. The pressure of the revised rental on the tenants has recently been examined, and it is estimated that the rental value of the *mālguzāri* area of the Province amounts to about 162 lakhs. The value of the annual crop out-turn is taken at a moderate computation to be about 17 crores The rental absorbs therefore less than a tenth of the produce. The fraction of the proprietor's income or 'assets' taken as revenue was generally smaller than at the thirty years' settlements, the average for sixteen Districts being 56 per cent. as against 62 per cent. in 1863. The land revenue of the Province was raised from 60 to 89 lakhs, the largest enhancement being 80 per cent. in Bilāspur. The recent series of partial and total failures of the harvest has, however,

in many Districts caused a serious decrease in the extent and value of the crops grown, while the agricultural classes have become impoverished and indebted. Government has been quick to recognize the altered state of things; and in addition to large remissions of the current demand in seasons of failure, regular abatements of revenue for a period of years have been made in all the affected Districts. In 1903–4 the land revenue had been reduced to 86 lakhs[1], falling at 9 annas 3 pies per acre on the cultivated area. Action is also under consideration for increasing the elasticity of the land revenue collections, and for providing for rapid and liberal suspensions of the demand in cases of local failure of the harvest.

Period of settlement.

The period now adopted for land revenue settlements is twenty years, as being most suitable for the Province in its still developing condition; but in order to cause the new settlements to expire in rotation and not simultaneously, they have been made for terms ranging from twelve to twenty-three years in different Districts.

The *zamīndāri* estates and *ryotwāri* villages.

In the *zamīndāri* estates the revenue is fixed at a favourably low rate, as a rule not exceeding 40 per cent. of the 'assets.' In *ryotwāri* villages the whole of the ryot's payment is taken as the Government revenue, subject to a small drawback allowed to the managing headman (*pātel*) for the trouble of collection. In regularly settled *ryotwāri* villages the revenue is assessed on holdings or survey-numbers, and in others according to the area cropped, which is measured annually. Concessions are granted to headmen who agree to found new villages by the remission of the revenue for three years, and in the case of rice villages, in which a tank is constructed, for a longer period which may extend to twenty years.

Miscellaneous revenue. Opium.

Up till 1872 the cultivation of poppy under licence was permitted all over the Province, but it was completely prohibited in 1879. Opium is now obtained from the factory at GHĀZĪPUR, and supplied to District treasuries, whence it is issued to licensed vendors at Rs. 22 a seer. Of this, Rs. 8–8 is credited to the opium revenue as the cost of production, and the remaining Rs. 13–8 represents the excise duty. Shops for the retail vend of opium are sanctioned in special localities, and the contracts for sale are disposed of annually by auction. In 1903–4 there were 952 permanent and 338 temporary shops in British territory. Besides the

[1] The demand for land revenue in the Province, after the changes of area effected in 1905, was 84 lakhs, and the demand for cesses 10 lakhs.

licensed vendors the District treasuries also supply the Feudatory States, who have agreed to obtain all the opium required in their territories in this way. The drug is issued to them at different rates, which are fixed by agreement and are usually lower than the rate charged to licensed vendors in British Districts.

Statistics of consumption and revenue.

The consumption of opium in 1903-4 amounted to 768 maunds, and the excise revenue was 6·10 lakhs, of which 2 lakhs was derived from licence fees, 3 lakhs from duty on opium sold to licensed vendors, and the remainder from sales to Feudatory chiefs. During the decades ending 1890 and 1900 the corresponding figures were 7 and 6·6 lakhs, respectively. The consumption of the drug decreased in the last decade owing to the impoverishment of the people caused by the famines, and the effects of this still remain. A large amount of smuggling is carried on from the Native States adjoining the Vindhyan and Narbadā valley Districts, and special measures for the repression of this have recently been taken.

Salt.

Up to 1874 the salt tax was mainly levied by the imposition of duty at a customs line, which in the form of a giant hedge of thorns barred the Provinces from the salt-producing regions of Rājputāna on the north, and Bombay and Madras on the west and south. No salt is produced in the Province, and no revenue is therefore now raised directly within it. The consumption has increased from 43,000 and 53,000 tons during the decades ending 1890 and 1900 respectively to 60,000 tons in 1904; the consumption per head of population was 8 lb. in 1881, 10 lb. in 1891, 13 lb. in 1901, and 13·2 lb. in 1904. The revenue payable on the salt consumed in the Province was 25·5 lakhs in 1881 and 32 lakhs in 1904, though the duty was 8 annas per maund lower in the latter year. The incidence of duty per head of population was 3 annas 9 pies in 1881, and 4 annas 4 pies in 1904.

Excise. System of administration.

Ever since the constitution of the Province in 1861, the problem of regulating the system of taxation and vend of intoxicating liquors to satisfy the varying requirements of different parts of the country has pressed for solution, while an exhaustive inquiry on the subject has recently (1904) been conducted with a view to placing the excise administration on a satisfactory basis. Prior to the changes introduced on the recommendation of the Excise Committee of that year three systems were in force, designated respectively the modified bonded warehouse, the central or *sadr* distillery, and the out-still systems. The liquor is almost invariably distilled

from the flower of the *mahuā* tree (*Bassia latifolia*). The modified bonded warehouse system was in force in Nāgpur and the greater part of Nimār. Under this, liquor was manufactured at a central distillery under Government supervision and of a prescribed strength. It was removed to Government bonded warehouses and issued to retail vendors at a fixed rate, varying from Rs. 1-14 to Rs. 4 a gallon according to the strength of the liquor. The manufacturing contractor tendered for the rate at which he would supply the liquor, and the difference between this and the price charged to retail vendors was the Government duty. The contract rates of manufacture varied between 9 annas and one rupee for liquors of different strength. The retail vendors obtained their licences by auction and paid licence fees. The *sadr* distillery system was in force at most District head-quarters, and in some other towns in open parts of the country. Under it a central distillery was maintained for the supply of a radius of 10 or 12 miles round the town, and liquor was distilled and removed to outlying shops for sale. The distillation was carried on under Government supervision, and duty was charged at the rate of from 1 to 4 annas per seer on the quantity of *mahuā* used, the contractor being free after payment of this duty to manufacture and retail the liquor at his discretion. The same contractor usually held the rights of manufacture and of retail vend. The report of the Excise Committee (1904) showed that the system had many defects, the checks to the smuggling of untaxed *mahuā* being quite inadequate, while the machinery for distillation was inefficient and the quality of the liquor produced inferior. There were 26 *sadr* distilleries in the Province in 1903-4, and the area supplied by them was approximately 11,449 square miles. Over the rest of the Province the out-still system was in force, under which the right of distillation for a small circle of villages was disposed of by auction, and the contractor made and sold the liquor at his discretion. In 1903-4 there were 1,929 out-stills in British Districts, the number having been reduced from 2,250 since 1889-90. The total number of places of retail vend was 6,811, or one to every 9¾ square miles. About 60 per cent. of the revenue on country liquor was raised from central distilleries and 40 per cent. from out-stills. No control is exercised by Government over the sale of liquor in the Feudatory States. The liquor made by simple fermentation from the sap of palm-trees, called *tāri*, is subject to taxation. It is consumed to a small extent in Nāgpur, Wardhā, Chānda,

and Nimār Districts, and the right to manufacture and retail it is sold annually by auction, the licence fees amounting to Rs. 24,500 in 1903-4. The only imported spirit of which statistics are kept is Indian rum manufactured at Shāhjahānpur. The imports of this spirit during the decade 1891-1900 averaged 6,015 gallons, and had increased to 11,188 gallons in 1903-4. Its sale is practically confined to the large towns, where it is preferred by educated natives and Eurasians to the impure *mahuā* spirit. A brewery was started at Jubbulpore in 1896. The receipts from foreign liquors in 1903-4 were nearly Rs. 17,000, derived almost entirely from the beer duty and fees on licences. The average receipts during the decades 1881-90 and 1891-1900 were Rs. 5,700 and Rs. 22,400 respectively.

Gānja. The hemp plant is cultivated under licence for the production of *gānja* in Nimār District, which furnishes the supply for the Central Provinces and Berār, the area cultivated in 1903-4 being 150 acres. Wholesale vendors are appointed by tender for each District or *tahsīl*, who purchase the drug from the storehouse and are bound to sell it to retail vendors at a fixed price of Rs. 5 per seer, the Government price being Rs. 4, and the proportion of the remaining rupee which the contractor is to pay to Government being settled by tender. The Government price was raised to Rs. 5 per seer in 1906 and a new system was introduced, licences for wholesale vend being granted to suitable applicants without restriction, and the rate at which the drug is obtained by retail vendors being left to be settled by competition. For retail vend, shops are opened at suitable places, and disposed of separately by auction, the number of permanent shops for retail vend of *gānja* in 1903-4 being 1,004. *Bhang* is charged with a Government duty of Rs. 2 per seer. The consumption of *gānja* and *bhang* in the British Districts of the Central Provinces in 1903-4 was 812 maunds (*gānja* 750 maunds, and *bhang* 62 maunds); and the revenue realized amounted to 2·16 lakhs, of which 1·20 lakhs was obtained from duty, and Rs. 96,000 from licence fees. The average receipts during the decades ending 1890 and 1900 were 1·6 and 2·3 lakhs respectively. *Gānja* is supplied to the Feudatory States either free or at a reduced rate, on condition that the price charged to retail vendors is the same as in British territory.

The Excise revenue and establishment. The gross excise revenue, excluding opium, in 1903-4 was 19·50 lakhs, of which 16·55 lakhs was obtained from country liquor, while the charges for collection amounted

to only Rs. 65,000, giving a net revenue of 18·85 lakhs. The average gross receipts during the decades ending 1890 and 1900 were 16·3 and 17·6 lakhs respectively, the corresponding figures for country liquor, which is the chief item of the revenue, being 14·2 and 14·7 lakhs. The incidence of revenue per head of population has varied between 3 annas 6 pies and 3 annas 1 pie during the last two decades. The local administration of the excise revenue has hitherto been conducted by the Deputy-Commissioners of Districts, with one or two subordinate officials, under the supervision of an Excise Commissioner for the Central Provinces and Berār. In 1905 sanction was given to the employment of a greatly increased and specialized establishment. Native opinion on the supply of intoxicating liquors is neutral, and there is no feeling in favour of prohibition or local option. The effect of English education is in some cases to lead members of the higher castes to disregard their caste rules on prohibition, and to take to drinking alcoholic liquor; but this class usually prefers imported spirits.

Proposals of the Excise Committee.

The report of the Excise Committee, issued at the end of 1904, recommended an entire change in the present administration. The basis of the scheme proposed is a system of large contracts with competent distillers, who will use their own premises for the supply of a prescribed area at a fixed price for manufacture. Liquor of high strength will be distilled and conveyed to bonded warehouses, the cost of carriage being distributed over all issues by fixing a price to cover it, and the contracts for manufacture and vend will be completely separated. Still-head duty is to be levied at three different rates, Rs. 3–2, Rs. 1–14, and R. 0–15 per proof gallon, to allow for the varying conditions of development of different parts of the country. The duty and cost of manufacture will be paid by the retail vendors on removal of the liquor from the bonded warehouses. The new scheme must be introduced gradually, in order to obtain experience in working it, but may ultimately be extended to the whole Province, with the exception of a few of the more densely-wooded tracts on the Sātpurās and the southern and eastern *zamīndāris*, for which out-stills would be retained. The proposals of the Committee were given effect to in five Districts in 1905–6.

Stamps.

The following figures show the average net revenue from sales of judicial and non-judicial stamps during the decades ending 1890 and 1900, and the net revenue in the year 1903–4, in thousands of rupees:—

	1881–90.	1891–1900.	1903–4.
Judicial stamps .	9,46	11,33	9,92
Non-judicial stamps .	4,05	4,60	4,17

The demand for each class of stamps continued to increase steadily up to 1893–4, when the combined revenue was 17·2 lakhs, or 12·2 for judicial and 5 lakhs for non-judicial stamps. The revenue then began to decline owing to the bad seasons, which seem to have affected the sales of both classes of stamps to an equal degree. The lowest combined figure was 12·7 lakhs in 1900–1, to which judicial contributed 9 lakhs and non-judicial 3·7.

Income tax. Previous to the introduction of the Income Tax Act in 1886, non-agricultural incomes had been taxed under the Pāndhri Act. The average receipts during the years 1886–90 were 4 lakhs, and during the decade ending 1900 6·5 lakhs. The receipts have gradually declined since 1893–4 owing to losses on account of bad harvests, and amounted in 1903–4 to 2·9 lakhs, the incidence of the tax per head of population being 6 pies, and the number of assessees 1·6 per thousand.

Municipalities. Municipal statistics. Municipal administration was first introduced under the Punjab Municipal Acts of 1864 and 1867, which were made applicable to the Central Provinces. The municipality of Nāgpur dates from 1864, and in 1867 forty-three towns received a municipal constitution. A special Act was passed for the Central Provinces in 1873, and revised Acts were enacted in 1889 and 1903. The principal points in which the earlier form of municipal self-government differed from that prevailing at present were that the executive officers of Government were usually *ex officio* members and presiding officers of municipal committees, that the municipalities maintained their own police force, and that they did not manage their own schools, pounds, dispensaries, and some other local institutions. In 1888 the number of municipal towns was fifty-seven; but between that year and 1901 several of the smaller municipalities were abolished, reducing the number in 1903–4 to forty-six, while similar action in respect to other towns is in contemplation. One municipal town, Nāgpur, has a population of over 100,000, nineteen of between 10,000 and 100,000, and twenty-six below 10,000. The total population resident within municipal limits in 1903–4 was 681,851. The total number of members of municipal committees in the same year was 576, of whom 178 were nominated by Govern-

ment and 398 elected; 125 of the members were officials and the remainder non-officials; 62 were Europeans. Not less than two-fifths of the members of a committee must be persons other than the salaried officers of Government.

Income and expenditure of municipalities.

The total income of municipalities in 1903-4 was 19·2 lakhs. In three towns, Nāgpur, Jubbulpore, and Khandwā, the receipts exceeded a lakh, and in nineteen towns they were below Rs. 10,000. The incidence of municipal taxation per head was Rs. 1-9-5, and of income Rs. 2-8-0. The main head of receipt is octroi, from which 9·7 lakhs was obtained in twenty-five municipalities in 1903–4, less 3·11 lakhs refunded on goods in transit. Water rate, conservancy cess, and taxes on houses and lands, on animals and vehicles, tolls and market dues are the chief sources of income. The total expenditure in 1903–4 was 17·6 lakhs, of which 4·88 lakhs was spent on administration and collection charges, 2·31 lakhs on water-supply (including Rs. 29,000 on drainage), 2·64 lakhs on conservancy, Rs. 73,000 on hospitals and dispensaries, 1·34 lakhs on roads and buildings, and 1·57 lakhs on public instruction.

General administration.

Water-works have been constructed in ten towns[1], and surface drainage schemes are in process of completion in Nāgpur and Jubbulpore, and exist in a few other towns. There is no pipe-drainage, and nightsoil and sweepings are always removed in carts. Little or no provision has as yet been made for protection from fire. Municipalities are as a rule not indebted, but a few loans have been taken from Government for water-works. The total amount of loans now outstanding is 9·77 lakhs. Viewed generally, municipal self-government may be considered to have successfully taken root in the Central Provinces; and though the bulk of the people as yet care little for it, much useful work is done gratuitously by a small number of non-official gentlemen, principally pleaders and also bankers and landowners.

District councils and local boards. Method of constitution.

Complete authority for the disposal of Local funds was vested in the Chief Commissioner in 1863. Their management was at first entrusted to a local committee for each District, consisting of the Commissioner, Deputy-Commissioner, and other nominated members. This arrangement lasted until the passing of the Local Self-Government Act, I of 1883, which provided for the creation of local administrative bodies. The basis of the scheme is a local board for each *tahsīl* and a District council for the whole District area. The constitution

[1] Rāj-Nāndgaon, a municipal town in the Feudatory States, has also water-works.

of the local boards is as follows. A certain proportion of members are village headmen, each of whom is elected by the headmen or *mukaddams* of a circle of villages as their representative. Another proportion are representatives of the mercantile and trading classes, and are elected by members of those classes. A third proportion, not exceeding one-third of the whole, consists of members nominated by Government. The constitution of District councils is similar to that of local boards. Each local body has a chairman and secretary, elected by the members subject to the approval of Government. The officers of the District councils are frequently non-officials, but it is generally found convenient that the *tahsīldār* and *naib-tahsīldar* should be chairman and secretary of the local boards. In 1903–4 there were seventeen District councils, or one for each District except Mandlā, which is excluded from the Act. The total number of members was 328, of whom 84 were nominated, 58 representatives of the mercantile classes, and 186 elected by local boards. The number of local boards was 55, each *tahsīl* usually having one board, while in some cases a separate board is constituted for the large *zamīndāri* estates. These boards had 891 members, of whom 214 were nominated, 148 elected by the mercantile classes, and 529 representative village headmen.

Their functions.

The District councils have no powers of taxation, and their income is derived from the following sources: the net proceeds of the road and school rates, the former fixed at 3 and the latter at 2 per cent. on the land revenue; the surplus derived from fines in cattle-pounds; the proceeds of public ferries; rents and profits from Government land outside municipal limits; and contributions from Provincial revenues. Their duties consist in the allotment and supervision of expenditure on the objects for the maintenance of which their income is raised. Formerly the upkeep of all roads other than the main Provincial routes was entrusted to the District council. But it soon became clear that an unprofessional committee could not discharge these duties satisfactorily, and the management of all except village tracks has now been transferred to the Public Works department. Arboricultural operations have also been generally made over to the Public Works department. Contracts for the collection of tolls at ferries are sold annually by auction. The maintenance of rural schools, the provision of buildings and apparatus, and the appointment of masters rest with the District council, subject to the supervision and advice of the Deputy-Commissioner and Inspector of Schools.

Pounds are under the control of the District council, and are managed by either the police, schoolmasters, or clerks appointed for the purpose. Contributions for expenditure on dispensaries, vaccination, and village sanitation are made to the dispensary fund, and veterinary dispensaries are maintained and managed by the District council, which also makes provision for village sanitation. Expenditure on famine relief is in the first instance a charge on District council funds, and 1·24 lakhs was spent for this purpose between 1895 and 1902. But if distress becomes at all severe the amount available from District funds is entirely inadequate, and the burden must be transferred to Provincial funds. The local boards have no independent income, but submit to the District council a statement of their requirements and an estimate of their probable expenditure, and the District council makes allotments of funds to each local board. Their principal duties are the supervision of expenditure on schools, wells, and village roads.

Income and expenditure.

The total receipts of District funds in 1903-4 were 11½ lakhs, of which 4·38 lakhs was realized from Provincial rates—that is, the road, school, and postal cesses—1·51 lakhs from pounds, and Rs. 35,000 from ferries, while contributions from Provincial revenues amounted to 2·9 lakhs. Their total expenditure was 11·74 lakhs, of which Rs. 43,000 was spent on general administration, 4·12 lakhs on education, 1·09 lakhs on medical relief, Rs. 20,000 on scientific and other minor objects, and 3·17 lakhs on civil works including contributions to the Public Works department. Nearly two lakhs on each side of the account are nominal income and expenditure.

Public Works. The Public Works department.

The Public Works department in the Province is controlled by a Chief Engineer for the Central Provinces and Berār, who is also secretary to the Chief Commissioner. There are two Superintending Engineers for roads and buildings, one in charge of the Second Circle, comprising the Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Divisions, and the other of the First Circle, which includes Berār and the Nāgpur and Chhattīsgarh Divisions. A third Superintending Engineer is in charge of irrigation in the Province as a whole. For roads and buildings the Province is divided into eight divisions in charge of Executive Engineers, seven comprising the eighteen Districts of British territory, and one, called the Chhattīsgarh States division, including the Feudatory States and large *zamīndāri* estates of the Chhattīsgarh Districts, in which the expenditure on public works is provided by the estates concerned. For irrigation three separate divisions have been constituted. Warorā Colliery

was under the Provincial Public Works department and had a separate manager until 1906, when it was closed. There are no State railways in the Province, and no railway branch of the Public Works department. The superior Provincial establishment now comprises 48 Engineers, of whom 11 are temporary.

Provincial roads and buildings.

Buildings belonging to the Postal and Telegraph departments are Imperial, but are maintained by the Provincial Public Works department out of Imperial funds. Military buildings are in some stations under the Public Works and in others under the Military Works department. The other Government buildings in the Province are either Provincial or local. The local roads and buildings consist of surface roads and unimportant buildings, such as rural and municipal school-houses, which are under the charge of municipalities and District councils. All other buildings and roads are Provincial, and their construction and maintenance devolve on the department. The annual expenditure during the decades ending 1890 and 1900 averaged 18 and 16 lakhs respectively. In the last few years the expenditure has largely increased, the figure for 1901–2 being 20 lakhs, and that for 1903–4 28 lakhs. These figures exclude famine expenditure from 1896 to 1903, which amounted to a total of 321 lakhs. The most important buildings that have been constructed recently are the three Central jails, the District office at Jubbulpore, the Reformatory School, Jubbulpore, the new Public Offices, the Mayo Hospital, and Government House, at Nāgpur. The Victoria Technical Institute now under construction is estimated to cost 1·5 lakhs, while new Secretariat buildings are about to be undertaken at a cost of 4½ lakhs.

Water-works, drainage schemes, &c.

Eleven towns in the Province are now supplied with water-works, all of which have been opened since 1890, at a total cost of 25 lakhs. No regular drainage works are in existence, but projects for surface drainage are at present being carried out in Nāgpur and Jubbulpore, while small sums have been expended in other towns. A contract for the construction and working of electric tramways in Nāgpur by an English firm is under consideration.

The Chhattīsgarh States division.

In 1892 a separate division of the Public Works department, under an Executive Engineer, was formed for the construction of roads and buildings in the Feudatory States and large *zamīndāri* estates of Chhattīsgarh. From that year to 1904 a sum of 5·6 lakhs has been expended on the construction of roads and 6·09 lakhs on buildings. The buildings

erected consist of public offices, schools, dispensaries, and residences for the families of the chiefs and *zamīndārs*. The total expenditure of the division during the same period was over 20 lakhs.

Army.

The strength of the British and Native army stationed within the Province on June 1, 1903, was 2,018 British and 2,647 native troops: total, 4,665. The Province falls within the Mhow division of the Western Command. The military stations in 1905 were Jubbulpore, Kamptee, Saugor, Sītābaldī, and Pachmarhī. The Nāgpur Volunteer Rifles have their head-quarters at Nāgpur. The total number of volunteers within the Province in 1903 was 1,273.

Police and jails. Development and constitution of police.

The police force was constituted in its present form on the formation of the Province, the previously existing Nāgpur Irregular Force being disbanded and the most efficient men drafted into the local police. The *zamīndāri* estates with an area of 19,000 square miles were for a time excluded from the jurisdiction of the force, the *zamīndārs* being allowed to make their own police arrangements; but the whole of this area is now under regular police administration. In municipal towns a separate police force was maintained by the municipality until 1882. The force has been slightly increased on several occasions, generally in consequence of fresh duties being imposed on it. In 1891 the numbers of the mounted police were reduced, and an increase was made in the remuneration of inspectors, head constables, and constables. The pay of inspectors ranges from Rs. 100 to Rs. 200, of sub-inspectors from Rs. 50 to Rs. 80, of head constables from Rs. 12 to Rs. 30, and of constables from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8. In 1904 the force contained 26 European officers, 48 inspectors, 174 sub-inspectors, 1,226 head constables, and 7,258 constables, besides 111 cantonment police, or a total of 8,843 of all ranks. This strength was equivalent to one man for 9 square miles of area and for 1,095 persons of the population. The total cost was 15½ lakhs. The superior officers comprise an Inspector-General, whose jurisdiction extends also over Berār, 18 District Superintendents, and 11 Assistant Superintendents. The pay of the police in the cantonments of Kamptee and Saugor is met from cantonment funds, but they are under the orders of the District Superintendent. On three railways special railway police are employed, and on others the Provincial force. A special reserve of 200 men is distributed over the head-quarters of six Districts, which is intended to deal with armed disturbers of the peace in whatever quarter they may appear. The men composing

this reserve are regularly drilled and armed with rifles. The ordinary reserve and District police have breech-loading smooth-bores or carbines. The mounted police number only 95, and are stationed at the head-quarters of Districts.

European officers of police are now recruited chiefly in England. Native officers are usually appointed by promotion from the lower grades, and nearly all the superior executive officers have risen from the rank of constable. A police training school for the Central Provinces was established in 1905. A large proportion of the native officers are Muhammadans. Constables are enlisted by the District Superintendent, preference being given to literate men and to inhabitants of the locality. A considerable section of the force, however, consists of recruits from Northern India, generally the United Provinces. The majority of constables are high-caste Hindus, but 1,316 belong to low castes, including 121 Gonds, and more than half are illiterate. Constables are required before confirmation to obtain a certificate involving a knowledge of drill and musketry, the definitions of common offences, and elementary rules of police action and their duties on beats. Head constables must pass an examination in the methods prescribed for the handling of crime, the criminal law, and the general duties of the police. The difficulty of obtaining suitable recruits has become acute in some Districts, where the wages of ordinary or factory labour compare favourably with those of police constables. The service is generally considered not sufficiently attractive to obtain a good class of men; and the causes advanced in explanation are the recruitment of native officers from the ranks, the inadequate pay of the lower grades, and the insufficient number of more highly-paid appointments. Measures for a general improvement in the pay and prospects of the police are now being carried out. Personnel.

Identification by means of anthropometry was introduced in 1895, and the finger-tip impression system was substituted for it in 1898. A central bureau is maintained at Nāgpur for dealing with criminals who range over more than one District or Province, the identification of local criminals being left to the District police. More than 19,600 slips of ex-convicts were on record in 1904, and the system has proved very successful. A Reformatory School for juvenile offenders is maintained at Jubbulpore and had 125 inmates in 1904. Identification on the finger-tip system.

The Central Provinces have no village police as the term is understood in some other parts of India. The village watchman or *kotwār* is the subordinate of the village headman and Village watchmen.

not a police official, and it is considered very desirable to maintain his position in this respect. The duties of the watchman are to report births and deaths, the commission of offences, and the residence of professional criminals; and to do this he must proceed once a week to the police post to which his village is attached. He must also assist the police in the detection of crime in his village. There is generally a watchman for every inhabited village, and large villages have two or more. Their remuneration is now paid in cash and is about Rs. 3 per month. The watchmen generally belong to the lowest castes, and are illiterate, but perform their duties efficiently.

Cognizable crime.

The following table gives statistics of cognizable crime:—

	Average for five years ending 1901.	1902.	1904.
Number of cases reported	34,579	21,532	21,725
Number of cases decided in criminal courts	16,718	10,429	11,139
Number of cases ending in acquittal or discharge	2,337	1,675	2,361
Percentage of cases ending in acquittal or discharge to total cases decided	14	16	21
Number of cases ending in conviction	14,381	8,754	8,778
Percentage of cases ending in conviction to number of cases decided	86	84	79

Jails.

The Province contains 3 Central and 15 District jails, and 1 subsidiary jail. The Central jails are at Nāgpur, Jubbulpore, and Raipur, and also serve as District jails for those Districts. Each of the other Districts has a jail at its head-quarters, and Sironchā, owing to its distance from the District head-quarters at Chānda, has a subsidiary jail. The jails contain accommodation altogether for 4,921 male and 498 female prisoners. During 1904 the average daily number of prisoners in all the Central jails was 2,020, and in the District jails 1,134. Long-term prisoners are transferred from District to Central jails, provided that they are in a fit state of health for hard labour. The health of the convicts is generally good and the death-rate favourable, though it was increased in the years of famine by the admission of many prisoners in a bad state of health. The average cost of maintenance per prisoner in 1904 was Rs. 88. A Central jail is under a Superintendent who is a member of the Indian Medical Service, while a District jail is managed by the Civil Surgeon of the

District. Each of the three Central jails has its distinctive industry directed towards supplying the wants of the consuming departments of Government. Weaving is carried on at Jubbulpore, and mats, towels, pillow-cases, and other articles are manufactured for the Supply and Transport department. To the Nāgpur jail is entrusted the printing of the forms required for use by all the Government departments of the Central Provinces, while the Raipur jail produces the annual supplies of clothing required by the Police and Jail departments. At District jails the recognized industries are stone-breaking, oil-pressing, and the manufacture of aloe-fibre. The total expenditure on the Jail department in 1904 was 2·79 lakhs, and the receipts from manufactures Rs. 1,25,000.

Education. Historical sketch.

Neither the Marāthā government nor its subjects recognized any duty on the part of the state to educate the people, and the present system of popular education is entirely the outcome of British ideas. The establishment of vernacular schools in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories was commenced on a substantial scale in 1854. At this time these Territories contained about 270 vernacular schools and 2,500 scholars. In the southern Districts, outside Nāgpur, which had several schools, education was practically confined to the Brāhman caste. Itinerant schoolmasters held classes on the main routes for pilgrims, and at the larger temples instruction in Sanskrit was given to Gosains and other religious mendicants. In Chhattīsgarh there was practically no education at all. The Educational department was constituted in 1862, and the scheme then drawn up has remained the basis of the system of public instruction to the present day. The leading principles laid down were that the department should content itself with the direct management of colleges and higher secondary schools, the training of teachers, and inspection work in rural areas. The maintenance of rural schools should as far as possible be left to the local authorities, every encouragement should be afforded to private enterprise and philanthropy, and no Government schools should be founded where there existed a sufficient number of institutions capable, with assistance from the state, of supplying the local demand for instruction. In 1863, 1,169 schools with 21,353 pupils had been established, and the annual expenditure was about a lakh. By 1881 there were 1,437 schools with 79,551 pupils. In 1884–5 the management of rural schools was made over to District councils; and in 1891 the number of institutions had risen to 1,845 with 111,498 pupils, including 3 colleges and 10 high schools.

Strenuous efforts have been made recently for the development of primary education. In 1903–4 there were 2,494 schools of all classes with 167,178 pupils, this being the best result ever attained.

The Educational department.

At the head of the Educational department is the Director of Public Instruction, who has a staff of four Inspectors for British Districts, and an Inspectress for all girls' schools. The Indian Educational service includes these appointments with the exception of one Inspectorship of Schools, and also those of the Principal, Jubbulpore College, and the Superintendent of the Training Institution for Teachers, Jubbulpore. An Agency Inspector supervises the schools of the Feudatory States, but this is a private appointment outside the cadre of the Educational department. Each Inspector has a circle of several Districts and inspects each rural school on an average about every third year. Secondary schools are inspected once or twice a year. In each District are one or more Deputy-Inspectors under the orders of the Deputy-Commissioner, though their training and appointment rest with the Educational department. There were twenty-nine Deputy-Inspectors in 1904. The Provincial Educational service includes the appointments of one Inspector of Schools and some Professors of the Jubbulpore College, and the Subordinate service those of Deputy-Inspectors and the training staff in Government secondary schools. The greater number of the middle and primary schools are controlled by municipal committees and District councils; and the teachers in them are the servants of these bodies, with whom their appointment and dismissal rest, subject to certain powers of control exercised by the department. In the considerable number of schools maintained by missions or other private associations, the teaching staff are the private servants of their employers.

University education.

The Province has three colleges—a Government college at Jubbulpore, and the Morris and Hislop Colleges at Nāgpur. The first of these was affiliated to the Allahābād University in 1891, and the other two were transferred from the Calcutta to the Allahābād University in 1905. The Morris College is managed by a committee and the Hislop College by the mission of the Scotch Free Church, but both receive grants from Provincial and Local funds. The Jubbulpore College teaches up to the B.A. and the two Nāgpur Colleges up to the M.A. degree. Statistics of University results are shown below:—

	Passes in				
	1881.	1891.	1901.	1903.	1904.
Matriculation	51	103	121	191	148
First or Intermediate in Arts or Science	16	39	50	27	61
Ordinary Bachelors' Degrees .	...	19	27	28	12
Higher and Special Degrees .	...	...	2	...	1

In 1904 the Jubbulpore College had 70 students, the Morris College 99, and the Hislop College 108. Hostels are attached to the Jubbulpore and Hislop Colleges, and to four high schools. No student can now be admitted to a college or any class of school, unless he lives either with his parents or suitable guardians, or in a hostel recognized by the Director of Public Instruction.

Secondary education.

Institutions for secondary education are divided into two grades, high schools and middle schools. The high schools prepare pupils for the matriculation or university entrance and the school final examinations. The lower secondary schools are called middle schools of the first or second grade. They may be either English or vernacular. The vernacular middle schools are merely primary schools with one or two extra classes attached according as they are second or first grade, thus continuing the course of primary education for one or two years longer. In high schools and the highest classes of English middle schools instruction is given in English. The curriculum for the school final test consists of English reading, grammar, and easy composition, elementary history, geography, and mathematics, including algebra and Euclid, and physics and chemistry, or an Indian classical language. In 1904 there were 27 high schools, 5 supported by Government and 22 under private management, of which 12 were in receipt of Government grants. The number of English middle schools was 79, 70 in British territory and 9 in the Feudatory States. Of the former 7 were maintained by Government, 26 by municipalities, 3 by District councils, and 34 by private persons, 28 of these last being in receipt of Government grants. Vernacular middle schools numbered 155, of which 19 were in the Feudatory States. All those in British territory were supported by municipalities or District councils. In 1904 the high schools contained 1,174 pupils, the English middle schools 6,091, and the vernacular middle schools 19,902 pupils, 2·1 per cent. of the boys in British Districts being in receipt of secondary education in these schools.

Primary education.

Important reforms have recently been introduced in both subject-matter and methods of teaching in primary schools. Ocular demonstration and instruction by object lessons are insisted on as far as possible. Besides reading, writing, and counting, the course of instruction in primary schools now comprises simple lessons in the structure and growth of plants and methods of agriculture, the preparation of the *patwārī's* village records and registers, the incidents of the different land tenures, the local law of landlord and tenant, and the system of accounts kept by the village money-lenders. A small quantity of Hindu poetry is also learnt by heart. In order to meet the objections of cultivators to being deprived of the services of their children in the fields so that they may attend school, a half-time system has been introduced, by which the children go to school only from 7 to 10 a. m. The masters in primary schools have usually passed through a two years' course in a Normal school, in which they are trained to teach intelligently and not by rote. The average pay of a master is Rs. 10 per month. Many schoolmasters receive extra pay for managing village post offices or cattle-pounds, and a few are sub-registrars, and in important schools the pay of the master is usually Rs. 20 a month. In 1904 the number of primary schools for boys was 2,053, of which 28 were maintained by Government, 1,566 by municipalities and District councils, 281 by the Feudatory States, and 178 by private persons or associations, of which last 117 received grants-in-aid from Government. The total number of boys in receipt of primary education in British Districts was 112,756, or 17 per cent. of the population of school-going age.

Female education.

Female education is still in its infancy, but considerable strides have been made in recent years, as is shown by the following statistics of schools and scholars at the end of the last three decades and in 1903-4: (1881) 82 schools with 3,454 pupils; (1891) 135 schools with 7,583 pupils; (1901) 188 schools with 11,208 pupils; (1903-4) 196 schools with 13,630 pupils. Of the total number of girls of school-going age 1·4 per cent. are now in receipt of instruction, but the vast majority are in primary schools. The attitude of the people towards female education is indifferent or even obstructive. Generally girls of the lower castes only are sent to school. The best girls' schools are under the management of missionary societies. An important change in the management of female education was made in 1902, by the transfer of girls' schools from the control of local bodies to that of the Government.

The course of study in girls' schools is nearly the same as for boys, except that needlework is taught as a compulsory subject and the lessons in agriculture and tenures are omitted.

Special schools.

Among the special educational institutions the following may be mentioned. A Training Institution at Jubbulpore prepares teachers for high, middle, and primary schools. There are also two normal schools for male and two for female teachers in primary schools. An Agricultural school at Nāgpur prepares candidates for appointments in the subordinate Revenue and Court of Wards establishments, and has classes for the instruction of primary schoolmasters and the sons of landowners in practical agriculture. An Engineering school at Jubbulpore is designed to train candidates for the lower subordinate appointments of the Public Works department, and of road-overseers for local bodies. Two industrial schools for European and Eurasian children are maintained by the St. Francis de Sales Order in Nāgpur, while several industrial schools for native children are managed by different missionary societies, but are not shown in the educational returns. The Rājkumār College at Raipur under a European principal has been established for the instruction of the sons of feudatory chiefs and *zamīndārs*.

European and Eurasian education.

Schools for European and Eurasian children number 17, all, with the exception of 3 railway schools, being under the management of Roman Catholic or Protestant missions. Of these, 8 give the whole educational course up to the high school standard, while one is a middle and 6 are primary schools. The total number of scholars is 1,346. In 1904, 9 pupils passed the matriculation examination, and 3 the school final. After leaving school, the students generally enter the railway and telegraph departments or the various public offices.

Muhammadan education.

Muhammadans in the Central Provinces are usually well educated as compared with the general population, the reasons being that nearly half of the whole number live in towns, and also that a large proportion of them are recent immigrants of good social standing. In 1904, 40 per cent. of boys and 2 per cent. of girls of school-going age were in receipt of instruction. The number of Muhammadan boys who take a University course is, however, small.

Depressed tribes and castes.

Among the depressed castes and aboriginal tribes there is as yet very little education, only 3 per cent. of boys among the forest tribes being at school. Great difficulty is experienced in persuading the forest tribes to send their children to school, and even when the children do go it is probable that only a few of them have sufficient power of concentration to learn

successfully. For the impure castes separate schools still exist in the Marāthā Districts, and when low-caste boys attend the ordinary schools they are made to sit in the veranda and are not touched. But this prejudice is decreasing, while in the northern Districts separate schools are not required.

Expenditure.

The following table shows the expenditure on education in 1903-4:—

	Expenditure on institutions maintained or aided by public funds.				
	Provincial revenues.	District and municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Arts and Professional colleges	27,388	1,500	16,164	17,029	62,081
Training and special schools	77,621	..	..	21	77,642
Secondary boys' schools	77,433	91,658	75,119	56,646	3,00,856
Primary boys' schools	30,346	2,96,928	14,640	70,485	4,12,399
Girls' schools	45,927	2,652	16,174	40,605	1,05,358
Total	2,58,715	3,92,738	1,22,097	1,84,786	9,58,336

The fees charged for pupils in colleges and schools vary with the income of the parents, ranging from Rs. 5 to Rs. 16 per month in colleges, from Rs. 2 to Rs. 8 in high schools, from 8 annas to Rs. 5 in middle, and from 1 anna to 8 annas in primary schools.

General results.

There is now one school to every 12 villages in British Districts, and one to every 3,772 persons. The percentage of children in receipt of instruction to those of school-going age was 4·6 in 1881, 5·9 in 1891, 7·3 in 1901, and 10 in 1903-4. At the Census of 1901, 327,486 persons or 3 per cent. of the population were returned as able to read and write, showing an increase of 70,575 during the preceding decade. Nearly 6 per cent. of males are literate, but only two in a thousand of females. Nimār, Jubbulpore, Narsinghpur, Nāgpur, and Hoshangābād are the most advanced Districts in respect of education, and those of Chhattīsgarh the most backward. Among Hindus, the Brāhmans, Baniās, and Kāyasths are enormously in advance of the rest of the community, 50 per cent. or more of adult males in these castes being able to read and write. Among the higher agricultural castes, about 10 per cent. of adult males are literate, while the lower castes and forest tribes have only one literate male in a hundred. About a quarter of the adult Muhammadans can read and write, nearly half the

Jains, and practically all Pārsīs. In respect of female education only the Kāyasths among Hindus have made any visible progress, 2·6 per cent. of their women being literate. Pārsī women are nearly always educated. Practically all European and Eurasian adults are literate.

Newspapers and books. The development of the Press has taken place entirely during the last two decades, there having been only one private printing press in the Province in 1881. In 1904, 26 presses were in existence in ten Districts, and eleven papers were issued. Of these one was published in Hindī and Marāthī, four in Marāthī, and five in Hindī. Two weekly papers are published in English in Nāgpur and Jubbulpore, and a Muhammadan paper in Urdū has a fitful existence in Jubbulpore. The native Press has very little influence, no paper having a circulation exceeding 500. The general tone of the papers is moderate and circumspect. In 1903, 34 original works were published, of which the majority were poetical and the remainder principally treatises on religion or languages.

Medical. Institutions. The record of the provision of institutions for medical relief is one of unbroken progress, which may be traced in Table XVI at the end of this article. The work was commenced in 1861 on the first formation of the Province, and in that year 18 dispensaries were open and 33,000 patients treated. From 1885 the control of the majority of the dispensaries was made over to municipal committees and District councils. In 1904 the total number of dispensaries was 194, 28 of which were classified as state, 84 as maintained from Local funds, and 82 as private. The principal medical institutions are the Mayo Memorial Hospital, Nāgpur, opened in 1874, with accommodation for 80 in-patients; the Victoria Hospital, Jubbulpore, opened in 1886 and accommodating 64 in-patients; the Lady Dufferin Hospitals at Nāgpur and Raipur and the Lady Elgin Hospital at Jubbulpore, these last three being for females, and containing altogether accommodation for 64 patients. Besides the police hospitals, 62 other dispensaries also have accommodation for in-patients, while separate dispensing rooms for male and female patients have been made available in 90 institutions. The total number of persons treated in all dispensaries in 1904 was 1,770,000, of whom 14,000 were in-patients, and the expenditure was 2·7 lakhs.

Lunatic and leper asylums. The Province has two lunatic asylums, at Nāgpur and Jubbulpore, both of which were opened in 1866. In 1904 they contained 290 lunatics, and cost Rs. 33,000. Out of 306 cases in which insanity was traced to a definite cause, 29 are shown

as hereditary, congenital, or due to secret vice, 17 as occasioned by epilepsy or sunstroke, 30 by the consumption of drugs and spirits, 13 by fever, and 55 by mental distress. Since the passing of the Leprosy Act of 1898 a leper asylum has been opened by Government at Nāgpur, which contains at present 30 inmates. Besides this 7 other leper asylums in Raipur, Bilāspur, Hoshangābād, and Wardhā are principally supported by missions, the asylum at Raipur receiving also contributions from municipal and District funds. About 750 lepers are maintained in these asylums.

Vaccination.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns to which the Vaccination Act has been extended; but it is carried on by itinerant vaccinators all over the Province including the Feudatory States, and though regarded by certain sections of the community with some dislike, it cannot be said that there is any general antipathy to the operation. Primary vaccination is usually successful in 97 per cent. or more of the total cases. Since 1880, the large majority of children born in British Districts have been vaccinated. Re-vaccination is only performed in from 10 to 15 per cent. of the cases of primary vaccination. The number of vaccinators employed in 1903–4 was 279, and on an average each vaccinated 1,800 persons. The cost was Rs. 50,000 including the Feudatory States, and the average cost of each successful case 1 anna 9 pies. Inoculation for small-pox was formerly practised, but no cases have been known since 1890.

Pice-packet system of selling quinine.

The system of retailing pice-packets of quinine through the post office was introduced in 1893, although some desultory attempts at providing quinine had been made by local bodies since the year 1885. In 1893, 498 packets, each containing 102 one-pice powders of 5 grains, were issued to the post offices, the amount realized being Rs. 685. Since 1893 the sales have steadily increased; and in 1904, 4,781 packets, containing about 345 lb. of quinine, were issued at a cost of Rs. 5,030. Each packet now contains 7 grains. Besides postmasters, the services of schoolmasters, stamp-vendors, and *patwāris* are occasionally utilized as vendors.

Village sanitation.

In important villages, which are not sufficiently large to be made municipal towns, a small fund is raised for purposes of sanitation, either by a house tax, market dues or cattle registration fees, the arrangements being in the hands of a small committee of the residents, or of the village headman. Simple rules for the disposal of sewage, the protection of the water-supply, and the preservation of cleanliness in the village

generally are then enforced. Funds for sanitary purposes were being levied in 69 villages in 1904. In all villages the headman is responsible for the enforcement of certain elementary sanitary precautions, and villages are inspected by officers on tour to see that these are carried out. Since 1888 a small sum has been allotted annually for the improvement of tanks and wells from which drinking-water is obtained, and this is supplemented by contributions raised in the villages where work is undertaken. The total amount spent in this manner from 1891 to 1904 was 12¼ lakhs; and for this sum 688 tanks and 2,406 wells have been constructed, and 714 tanks and 5,702 wells repaired.

Survey.

The work of the Great Trigonometrical Survey was completed in the Province in 1876, when 7,633 square miles had been surveyed by four series of triangles, two running from north to south through Jubbulpore and Bilāspur, and two from east to west through Jubbulpore and Sambalpur. A Topographical survey succeeded the Trigonometrical; but its operations were confined to hill and forest tracts, its object being to construct a topographical map on a scale of 4 inches to the mile by plane-table survey and sketching, and village boundaries were not marked. The Topographical survey was begun in 1862, and in 1873 operations in the Central Provinces were completed, an area of 28,000 square miles having been surveyed. In 1902-3 the re-survey of those areas which had been topographically surveyed was commenced, with a view to checking the accuracy of the existing maps. In the open and cultivated areas of the Province the traverse is now substituted for the topographical survey. This survey is carried out by the method of plane-tabling, but on a basis formed by carrying traverses with theodolite and chain round the boundary of the village, in lieu of triangulation from prominent stations. These operations result in the construction of a skeleton map of each village, showing the position of a series of theodolite stations lying round the village boundary. A traverse survey was effected for the settlements of 1863 and subsequent years, and was accompanied by a cadastral survey by fields; but the two operations were carried on independently, and the measurements were plotted on different scales, one being used merely as a check on the other. A complete re-survey was found necessary for the new settlements of 1885 and subsequent years. On this occasion the traverse work was again done by the Survey department, commencing after 1884, and 73,000 square miles have been surveyed, the cost approximating to

Rs. 26 per square mile. In the meantime the village *patwāris* or accountants were trained in field-plotting by means of the chain; and when they had become competent the skeleton village maps were handed over to them, and the cadastral or field-to-field survey carried out on a scale of 16 inches to the mile. The cost of the cadastral survey was Rs. 36 per square mile. The survey extended over 60,000 square miles, and included 47,000 square miles of cultivation, containing 22 million separately surveyed fields. The completion of the field map was followed by the preparation of a set of records giving full details of the ownership, tenancy, rent, and cultivation of every field in the village. From this paper a village rent-roll was drawn up. The field-maps and land records are annually corrected by the *patwāris*.

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TABLE I. Temperature in the Central Provinces

Station.	Height of Observatory above sea-level.	Average temperature in degrees (Fahrenheit) for twenty-five years ending with 1901 in							
		January.		May.		July.		November.	
		Mean.	Diurnal range.	Mean.	Diurnal range.	Mean.	Diurnal range.	Mean.	Diurnal range.
	Ft.								
Jubbulpore	1,327	62.8	28.6	92.1	26.6	80.5	11.6	67.6	29.0
Hoshangābād	1,006	66.1	27.4	94.0	27.1	81.3	11.8	71.0	27.1
Raipur	970	68.2	24.8	94.3	25.2	80.9	12.0	72.1	22.5
Nāgpur	1,025	69.6	27.4	95.5	27.3	81.7	13.1	72.7	25.1
Pachmarhī (Hill station)	3,528	59.4	23.4	85.2	19.9	72.1	8.0	62.3	22.4

NOTE.—The diurnal range is the average difference between the maximum and minimum temperature of each day.

TABLE II. Rainfall in the Central Provinces

Station.	Average rainfall (in inches) for twenty-five years ending with 1901 in												
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total of year.
Jubbulpore	0.90	0.60	0.50	0.33	0.55	9.14	19.03	17.27	7.70	1.75	0.43	0.33	58.53
Hoshangābād	0.37	0.28	0.18	0.15	0.51	6.28	16.74	14.81	8.97	1.65	0.39	0.62	50.95
Raipur	0.35	0.55	0.65	0.64	1.00	8.89	15.22	13.12	7.55	2.21	0.40	0.24	50.82
Nāgpur	0.58	0.41	0.49	0.59	0.67	8.24	14.38	11.61	8.74	2.32	0.71	0.49	49.23
Pachmarhī (Hill station)	0.88	0.50	0.41	0.39	0.47	10.17	24.78	21.46	14.44	2.12	0.49	0.58	76.69

TABLE III. DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION, CENTRAL PROVINCES, 1901.

District or State.	Area in square miles.	Number of towns.	Number of villages.	Total Population.			Urban Population.			Persons per square mile in rural areas.
				Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	
British Districts.										
Saugor . . .	3,962	5	1,924	469,479	237,972	231,507	68,248	35,713	32,535	102
Damoh . . .	2,816	1	1,116	285,326	143,488	141,838	13,355	6,746	6,609	97
Jubbulpore . . .	3,912	3	2,298	680,585	335,552	345,033	110,048	56,893	53,155	146
Mandlā . . .	5,054	1	1,834	318,400	157,061	161,339	5,428	2,756	2,672	62
Seonī . . .	3,206	1	1,389	327,709	158,416	169,293	11,864	5,693	6,171	99
Jubbulpore Division .	18,950	11	8,561	2,081,499	1,032,489	1,049,010	208,943	107,801	101,142	99
Narsinghpur . .	1,976	3	963	315,518	154,694	160,824	23,647	11,844	11,803	148
Hoshangābād . .	3,676	6	1,334	446,585	222,859	223,726	54,980	28,307	26,673	107
Nimār . . .	4,273	3	921	329,615	169,167	160,448	52,831	27,250	25,581	65
Betūl . . .	3,826	2	1,194	285,363	139,940	145,423	10,305	4,979	5,326	72
Chhindwāra . .	4,631	4	1,751	407,927	199,369	208,558	29,155	14,107	15,048	82
Nerbudda Division .	18,382	18	6,163	1,785,008	886,029	898,979	170,918	86,487	84,431	88
Wardhā . . .	2,428	5	901	385,103	193,815	191,288	43,455	22,391	21,064	142
Nāgpur . . .	3,840	12	1,681	751,844	377,612	374,232	240,388	122,568	117,820	135
Chānda . . .	10,156	2	2,601	581,315	287,227	294,088	28,429	14,441	13,988	55
Bhandāra . . .	3,965	3	1,635	663,062	320,648	342,414	31,505	15,293	16,212	160
Bālāghāt . . .	3,132	1	1,081	325,371	157,159	168,212	6,223	3,057	3,166	102
Nāgpur Division .	23,521	23	7,899	2,706,695	1,336,461	1,370,234	350,000	177,750	172,250	101

12

TABLE III. DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION, CENTRAL PROVINCES, 1901 (*continued*)

District or State.	Area in square miles.	Number of towns.	Number of villages.	Total Population.			Urban Population.			Persons per square mile in rural areas.
				Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	
British Districts (*cont.*).										
Drug	3,807	1	2,047	628,885	297,998	330,887	4,002	1,889	2,113	164
Raipur . . .	9,831	3	4,051	1,096,858	532,675	564,183	47,764	23,989	23,775	107
Bilāspur . . .	7,602	3	3,258	917,240	445,789	471,451	30,323	14,984	15,339	117
Chhattīsgarh Division	21,240	7	9,356	2,642,983	1,276,462	1,366,521	82,089	40,862	41,227	120
Total, British Districts	82,093	59	31,979	9,216,185	4,531,441	4,684,744	811,950	412,900	399,050	102
Feudatory States.										
Makrai . . .	155	..	64	13,035	6,492	6,543	1,640	816	824	74
Bastar . . .	13,062	..	2,525	306,501	155,683	150,818	4,762	2,474	2,288	23
Kānker . . .	1,429	..	444	103,536	51,596	51,940	3,906	1,868	2,038	70
Nāndgaon . . .	871	1	515	126,365	60,110	66,255	11,094	5,447	5,647	132
Khairāgarh . . .	931	1	497	137,554	65,699	71,855	10,512	5,074	5,438	137
Chhuīkhadān . .	154	..	107	26,368	12,596	13,772	2,085	1,019	1,066	158
Kawardhā . . .	798	..	346	57,474	27,962	29,512	4,372	2,056	2,316	67
Saktī	138	..	122	22,301	10,885	11,416	1,791	899	892	149
Raigarh . . .	1,486	1	721	174,929	86,543	88,386	6,764	3,396	3,368	113
Sārangarh . . .	540	1	455	79,900	38,738	41,162	5,227	2,590	2,637	138
Chāng Bhakār . .	904	..	117	19,548	10,003	9,545	..	..	..	22
Koreā . . .	1,631	..	250	35,113	17,948	17,165	..	..	..	22
Surgujā . . .	6,089	..	1,372	351,011	177,961	173,050	..	..	..	58
Udaipur . . .	1,052	..	196	45,391	23,107	22,284	..	..	..	43
Jashpur . . .	1,948	..	566	132,114	66,647	65,467	..	..	..	68
Total, Feudatory States	31,188	4	8,297	1,631,140	811,970	819,170	52,153	25,639	26,514	51
GRAND TOTAL, Central Provinces . .	113,281	63	40,276	10,847,325	5,343,411	5,503,914	864,103	438,539	425,564	88

NOTE.—The Districts and States shown are those left in the Central Provinces after the redistribution of territory made in 1905. The District articles give later figures in some cases, owing to small administrative changes.

TABLE IV

Statistics of Agriculture, Central Provinces

(In square miles)

	1881–90 (average).	1891–1900 (average).	1901–2.	1903–4.
Total area	64,416	72,810	78,549	78,947
Total uncultivated area	40,905	43,292	47,749	47,632
Cultivable, but not cultivated	13,857	19,219	23,642	23,439
Uncultivable	27,048	24,073	24,107	24,193
*Total cultivated area	23,511	29,518	30,800	31,315
Irrigated from wells and tanks	932	914	1,115	458
,, ,, other sources	15	37	50	38
Total irrigated area	947	951	1,165	496
Unirrigated area	22,812	25,302	25,779	29,010
Total cropped area	23,759	26,253	26,944	29,506
Rice	5,901	7,266	7,099	6,960
Wheat	6,260	4,451	4,096	4,566
Jowār	7,370 (Jowār to Other food-grains)	2,543	3,070	2,792
Gram (pulse)		1,397	1,480	1,449
Kodon and *kutkī*		2,294	3,266	3,591
Arhar (*tūr*)		381	543	494
Urad, *mūng*, and *moth*		700	757	1,249
Other food-grains		1,977	1,636	2,176
Linseed	2,441 (Linseed to Other oilseeds)	1,500	953	1,264
Til		1,056	1,110	1,504
Other oilseeds		463	585	581
Cotton	1,032	1,113	1,533	2,040
Sugar-cane	..	51	36	28
Fodder crops, orchards, and garden produce	..	537	508	572
Miscellaneous crops	755	524	272	240
Double-cropped area	1,180	1,839	1,224	2,360

* Includes current fallows of three years and under.

Note.—Owing to the abnormal conditions, due to famine, prevailing in 1900–1, figures have been given in this and succeeding tables for 1901–2 or 1902, instead of for 1900–1 or 1901 as in other Provinces.

TABLE V

Prices of Food-staples, Central Provinces

(In seers per rupee)

Selected staples.	Selected centres.	Average for ten years ending 1880.	1890.	1900.	Average for the year 1902.	Average for the year 1904.
Rice	Saugor	13	11	10	11	11
	Jubbulpore	15	14	14	11	13
	Hoshangābād	10	10	11	10	9
	Chhindwāra	13	13	10	11	13
	Nāgpur	16	15	12	11	13
Wheat	Saugor	20	21	12	13	15
	Jubbulpore	20	18	14	15	15
	Hoshangābād	16	17	13	13	15
	Chhindwāra	20	19	14	13	17
	Nāgpur	19	19	14	12	16
Jowār	Saugor	28	31	18	19	23
	Jubbulpore	24	23	18	19	26
	Hoshangābād	21	23	18	18	20
	Chhindwāra	26	25	19	18	26
	Nāgpur	26	25	19	18	18
Salt	Central Provinces	8	10	9	10	11

Note.—The years 1897 and 1900 have been excluded as being years of acute famine.

TABLE VI

RAIL-BORNE TRADE OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES WITH OTHER PROVINCES

(In thousands of rupees)

	1890-1.	1901-2.	1903-4.
Imports.			
Coal and coke	5,13	8,95	16,56
Cotton, raw	1,95	20,63	42,00
,, twist and yarn	29,20	31,12	44,19
,, piece-goods	57,48	70,74	89,73
Dyes and tans	7,30	8,88	9,90
Grain and pulse	6,70	57,43	16,62
Hemp and jute	15,43	13,29	20,27
Metals (wrought and unwrought)	20,82	43,08	54,26
Oils	7,63	18,36	22,30
Provisions	28,32	27,36	39,80
Railway plant and rolling stock	15,82	7,94	17,53
Salt	45,78	54,16	48,62
Silk, raw and piece-goods	2,98	15,44	8,32
Spices	8,62	13,60	13,56
Sugar	38,34	55,86	59,92
Tobacco	11,02	9,54	10,73
All other articles	33,66	48,96	61,83
Total	3,36,18	5,05,34	5,76,14
Treasure	Not registered	1,17,83	2,03,01
Exports.			
Coal and coke	5,35	5,68	4,21
Cotton, raw	41,50	1,96,00	2,80,26
,, twist and yarn	2,38	26,46	24,65
,, piece-goods	15,16	32,45	32,90
Dyes and tans	8,80	11,44	9,51
Grain and pulse	1,98,25	77,85	1,91,64
Hides and skins	11,03	16,13	29,87
Hemp and jute	1,10	12,60	14,31
Lac	7,42	8,64	21,81
Metals (wrought and unwrought)	2,64	9.57	14,29
Oilseeds	95,67	1,39,62	85,35
Provisions	9,98	74,11	64,02
Railway plant and rolling stock	10,26	46,01	53,76
Silk, raw and piece-goods	28	66	1,21
Wood	Not registered	30,45	20,74
All other articles	59,66	42,10	43,20
Total	4,69,48	7,29,77	8,91,73
Treasure	Not registered	47,04	36,36

TABLE VII

Postal Statistics, Central Provinces

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1901-2.*	1903-4.
Number of post offices	186	429	813	689
Number of letter-boxes	157	474	581	566
Number of miles of postal communication	4,465	5,979	9,770	8,411
Total number of postal articles delivered—				
Letters	†5,552,980	5,516,802	9,517,846	7,349,316
Postcards	†525,939	2,329,717	7,621,016	6,381,492
Packets	†119,772	289,911	‡942,994	‡850,824
Newspapers	†396,625	669,593	‖1,249,274	908,674
Parcels	†39,054	55,601	136,916	146,802
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Value of stamps sold to the public	1,11,811	2,10,156	3,24,953	3,77,550
Value of money orders issued	†30,08,110	67,92,610	1,26,44,754	1,09,25,822
Total amount of Savings Bank deposits	...	†23,10,976	38,91,305	35,50,732

* The figures for the year 1901-2, except for value of stamps, include those for Berār.

† These figures include those for Berār.

‡ Include unregistered newspapers.

‖ Registered as newspapers in the Post Office.

TABLE VIII

Statistics of Civil Suits, Central Provinces

Description of civil suits.	Average for ten years ending 1890.	Average for ten years ending 1900.	1902.	1904.
Suits for money and movable property	88,374	69,617	55,836	55,060
Title and other suits	6,428	9,391	11,301	12,649
Rent suits	9,229	13,959	13,544	11,746
Total	104,031	92,967	80,681	79,455

TABLE IX

Criminal Statistics, Central Provinces

	Average for ten years ending 1890.	Average for ten years ending 1900.	1902.	1904.	Percentage of convictions, 1904.
Number of persons tried—					
(*a*) For offences against person and property .	27,386	32,055	22,671	20,309	37
(*b*) For other offences against the Indian Penal Code . .	3,963	3,668	3,550	3,438	33
(*c*) For offences against Special and Local laws	7,899	9,220	11,031	11,098	70
Total	39,248	44,943	37,252	34,845	50

TABLE Xa

Principal Sources of Revenue, Central Provinces

(In thousands of rupees)

Sources of revenue.	Average for ten years ending March 31, 1890.		Average for ten years ending March 31, 1900.		Year ending March 31, 1902.		Year ending March 31, 1904.	
	Total amount raised (Imperial, Provincial, and Local).	Amount credited to Provincial Revenues.	Total amount raised (Imperial, Provincial, and Local).	Amount credited to Provincial Revenues.	Total amount raised (Imperial, Provincial, and Local).	Amount credited to Provincial Revenues.	Total amount raised (Imperial, Provincial, and Local).	Amount credited to Provincial Revenues.
Opening balance .	...	19,97	...	9,87	...	...	...	22,42
Land revenue . .	62,11	26,80	69,69	44,51	86,85	43,42	83,86	41,93
(Assignment from Imperial) . .	...	...	...	...	...	+38,23	...	+36,45
Stamps	13,81	9,26	16,29	12,22	15,58	11,68	14,51	10,88
Excise	23,36	11,80	24,01	6,00	19,51	4,88	25,60	6,40
Provincial rates .	6,85	2,08	10,21	2,13	15,62	3,03	11,32	2,46
Assessed taxes .	3,21	1,54	4,80	2,37	4,25	2,07	2,97	1,48
Forests	8,42	4,21	10,31	5,16	11,16	5,58	13,91	6,96
Registration . .	75	44	1,16	58	97	48	86	43
Other sources . .	24,28	16,51	10,90	7,72	16,45	7,97	11,67	9,18
Total receipts	1,42,79	72,64	1,47,37	80,69	1,70,39	1,17,34	1,64,70	1,16,17
Grand Total	...	92,61	...	90,56	...	1,17,34	. .	1,38,59

TABLE X B

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF EXPENDITURE, CENTRAL PROVINCES

(In thousands of rupees)

	Average for ten years ending March 31, 1890.	Average for ten years ending March 31, 1900.	Year ending March 31, 1902.	Year ending March 31, 1904.
Charges in respect of collection (principally Land Revenue and Forests)	11,57	17,50	17,70	19,34
Salaries and expenses of Civil Departments—				
(*a*) General administration	3,52	4,58	4,98	6,20
(*b*) Law and Justice	12,53	14,54	15,21	16,31
(*c*) Police	12,72	14,29	14,69	15,25
(*d*) Education	5,10	3,68	3,78	4,89
(*e*) Medical	2,41	3,31	3,26	4,03
(*f*) Other heads	49	87	1,07	1,94
Pensions and miscellaneous civil charges	3,10	5,08	11,02	20,05
Famine relief	..	15	..	..
Irrigation	..	..	..	2,75
Civil public works	18,37	16,22	20,03	28,00
Other charges	76	1,39	1,71	1,57
Adjustments	51	1,28	1,46	3,25
Total expenditure	71,08	82,89	94,91	1,23,58
Closing balance	21,53	7,67	22,43	15,01
GRAND TOTAL	92,61	90,56	1,17,34	1,38,59

TABLE XI

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF MUNICIPALITIES, CENTRAL PROVINCES

	Average for ten years 1891-1900.	1901-2.	1903-4.
Income from—	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Octroi	7,88,257	8,82,470	9,65,966
Tax on houses and lands	31,494	32,094	28,132
Other taxes	2,15,399	2,81,361	2,84,411
Rents	28,583	43,495	57,079
Loans	93,369	..	1,11,310
Other sources	3,68,162	3,39,989	4,74,700
Total income	15,25,264	15,79,409	19,21,598
Expenditure on—			
Administration and collection of taxes	3,57,063	4,30,323	4,87,990
Public safety	14,333	23,565	26,570
Water-supply and drainage—			
(*a*) Capital	1,71,286	31,948	72,077
(*b*) Maintenance	85,873	1,45,671	1,58,482
Conservancy	2,56,179	2,57,140	2,63,898
Hospitals and dispensaries	98,796	71,275	73,486
Public works	1,13,964	1,14,626	1,34,041
Education	1,46,725	1,43,319	1,57,215
Other heads	2,80,721	3,09,141	3,89,895
Total expenditure	15,24,940	15,27,008	17,63,654

TABLE XII

Income and Expenditure of District Councils, Central Provinces

	Average for ten years 1891–1900.	1901–2.	1903–4.
Income from—	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Land revenue	16,792	14,360	11,820
Contributions from Provincial funds	1,28,516	1,45,730	2,89,995
Interest	127	21	21
Education	8,076	11,045	13,430
Medical	5,422	1,433	7,618
Scientific, &c.	3,486	3,180	4,004
Miscellaneous	12,088	10,406	19,144
Public works	16,342	8,795	9,357
Pounds	1,72,592	1,57,430	1,50,615
Ferries	54,528	46,728	34,568
Debts	89,538	1,03,352	1,72,177
Provincial rates	3,45,448	5,84,977	4,37,681
Total income	8,52,955	10,87,457	11,50,430
Expenditure on—			
Refunds	721	1,232	500
Contributions	20,447	19,423	1,77,921
Loans	150	..	..
General administration	38,558	41,638	42,602
Education	2,68,305	2,71,593	4,11,607
Medical	77,799	87,019	1,09,154
Scientific, &c.	9,239	14,192	20,137
Miscellaneous	93,899	88,914	1,00,125
Public works	2,85,487	2,64,687	1,39,019
Deposits and advances	93,687	91,515	1,72,800
Total expenditure	8,88,292	8,80,213	11,73,865

TABLE XIII. STATISTICS OF POLICE, CENTRAL PROVINCES

	1881.		1891.		1902.		1904.	
	No.	Pay.	No.	Pay.	No.	Pay.	No.	Pay.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Supervising Staff.								
District and Assistant District Superintendents .	26	1,53,600	29	1,71,600	29	2,41,290	25	2,54,104
Inspectors	59		41		47		48	
Subordinate Staff.		2,60,900		3,40,515		4,19,859		4,23,570
Sub-inspectors, &c.	192		259		163		174	
Head constables	880		1,074		1,229		1,226	
Constables	6,342	4,69,542	7,327	5,74,641	7,322	5,87,392	7,258	5,88,567
Total Regular Police	7,499	8,84,042	8,730	10,86,756	8,790	12,48,541	8,731	12,66,241
Cantonment or Municipal Police.								
Officers	173	Not available	21	Not available	18	Not available	17	Not available
Men	998	,,	122	,,	111	,,	94	,,

TABLE XIV

Statistics of Jails, Central Provinces

	1881.	1891.	1902.	1904.
Number of Central jails . .	3	3	3	3
Number of District jails . .	15	15	15	15
Number of Subsidiary jails .	1	1	1	1
Average daily jail population—				
(*a*) Male prisoners:				
In Central jails . .	2,551	2,782	2,571	1,911
In other jails . . .	1,205	1,581	1,359	1,038
(*b*) Female prisoners:				
In Central jails . .	191	163	111	109
In other jails . . .	119	149	109	96
Total prisoners	4,066	4,675	4,150	3,154
Rate of mortality per 1,000 .	30	30	26	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Expenditure on jail maintenance	1,84,748	2,71,657	3,08,788	2,78,893
Cost per prisoner . . .	46	58	74	88
Profits on jail manufactures .	74,214	1,79,685	67,523	1,24,650
Earnings per prisoner—				
(*a*) Sentenced to labour .	19	22	55	26
(*b*) Employed on jail manufactures . . .	30	50	127	67

TABLE XV. EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS, CENTRAL PROVINCES

Institutions.	1880-1.			1890-1.			1901-2.			1903-4.		
	Number of institutions.	Scholars.		Number of institutions.	Scholars.		Number of institutions.	Scholars.		Number of institutions.	Scholars.	
		Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.
Public.												
Arts colleges . .	2	60	...	3	211	1	3	282	...	3	277	...
Professional colleges .	...	..	...	...	...	...	2	37	...	2	53	...
Secondary schools—												
Upper (High) . .	5	252	3	10	618	...	105	7,821	215	27	1,137	37
Lower (Middle) .	50	2,224	39	250	22,986	508	151	2,107	114	234	24,687	1,306
Primary schools—												
Upper and Lower .	1,360	73,122	3,392	1,557	79,364	7,055	2,290	120,515	10,963	2,215	126,783	12,166
Training schools . .	4	177	20	5	206	19	5	225	23	6	274	44
Other special schools .	16	262	...	20	530	...	7	383	35	7	337	77
Total	1,437	76,097	3,454	1,845	103,915	7,583	2,563	131,370	11,350	2,494	153,548	13,630

TABLE XVI

STATISTICS OF HOSPITALS, LUNATIC ASYLUMS, AND VACCINATION, CENTRAL PROVINCES

	1881.	1891.	1902.	1904.
Hospitals, &c.				
Number of civil hospitals and dispensaries	81	84	113	112
Average daily number of—				
(*a*) In-patients	335	365	472	387
(*b*) Out-patients	4,355	5,877	7,470	6,298
Income from—				
(*a*) Government payments Rs.	58,406	46,649	64,219	1,13,120
(*b*) Local and Municipal payments Rs.	29,784	65,269	94,861	1,21,138
(*c*) Fees, endowments, and other sources Rs.	33,946	33,494	62,353	59,557
Expenditure on—				
(*a*) Establishments Rs.	60,066	69,218	96,303	1,01,438
(*b*) Medicines, diet, buildings, &c. Rs.	43,946	74,232	1,11,967	1,67,813
Lunatic Asylums.				
Number of asylums	2	2	2	2
Average daily number of—				
(*a*) Criminal lunatics	53	78	77	71
(*b*) Other lunatics	187	183	229	230
Income from—				
(*a*) Government payments Rs.	16,458	16,713	19,873	21,845
(*b*) Fees and other sources Rs.	1,615	6,157	20,988	29,716
Expenditure on—				
(*a*) Establishment Rs.	10,039	9,305	9,156	9,898
(*b*) Diet, buildings, &c. Rs.	8,866	13,565	21,948	22,727
Vaccination.				
Population among whom vaccination was carried on	9,516,146	10,292,104	9,876,646	9,876,646
Number of successful operations	378,118	374,311	381,761	423,942
Ratio per 1,000 of population	38	39	39	43
Total expenditure on vaccination Rs.	38,547	46,880	42,162	44,565
Cost per successful case Rs.	0 1 9	0 2 1	0 1 10	0 1 9

Distribution and numbers.

Baigā[1].—A primitive Dravidian tribe in the Central Provinces, with 25,000 members in 1901, residing principally in Mandlā and the adjoining Districts. The Binjhāls or Binjhwārs, who number 71,000, and are found chiefly in Sambalpur, were originally a subdivision of the Baigās, but have now become Hinduized, and are practically a separate caste. In Mandlā and Bālāghāt the Binjhāls are shown as a sub-caste of Baigās. They include several of the Sambalpur *zamīndārs*. The Bhumiās(guardians of the earth) are the same tribe as the Baigās, while the Bhainās of Bilāspur are probably another offshoot, Raibhainā being shown as the sub-caste of Baigā in Bālāghāt.

Endogamy and exogamy.

The Baigās have several endogamous divisions, some of which will not eat with each other. The Gondwainās who eat beef and monkeys are the lowest sub-caste. Each sub-caste is divided into a number of exogamous septs, the names of which are identical in many cases with those of the Gonds. The septs are further divided, as among the Gonds, into groups worshipping different numbers of gods, and the marriage of persons worshipping the same number of gods is prohibited, although they may belong to different septs. This organization is probably taken from that of the Gonds, adopted in accordance with the usual principle of imitation at the time when the Gonds were a ruling race. Gond girls marrying Baigās are admitted into the caste.

Marriage.

Marriage is adult, and a price varying from Rs. 5 to Rs. 20 is usually paid for the bride. Unchastity before marriage is said to be a rare occurrence. The ceremony presents no special features, except that it is considered essential that the bride's father should go out to meet the bridegroom's party riding on an elephant. As a real elephant is not within the means of a Baigā, two wooden bedsteads are lashed together and covered with blankets, with a black cloth trunk in front, and this arrangement passes muster for an elephant. A widow is expected to marry her husband's younger brother, and if she marries anybody else without his consent, he must be compensated by a payment of Rs. 5. Divorce is effected by the husband and wife jointly breaking a straw.

Disposal of dead.

The dead are usually buried, the bodies of old persons only being burnt as a special honour, and to save them from the risk of being devoured by wild animals. The bodies are laid naked in the grave with their heads pointing to the south. In

[1] The bulk of this article is taken from a monograph furnished by the Rev. J. Lampard, Missionary, Baihar.

the grave of a man of importance two or three rupees and some tobacco are placed. Over the grave a platform is made on which a stone is erected. This is called the *bhīri* of the deceased and is worshipped by his relations in time of trouble.

Religion.

Their religion presents no special features; but a Baigā is frequently the priest in a Gond village, probably because as an earlier resident of the country he is considered to have a more intimate knowledge of the local deities and is thus called in to lay spirits. Even a Brāhman has been known to consult a Baigā priest and ask what forest gods he should worship, and what other steps he should take to keep well and escape calamity. The knowledge which the Baigās possess of the medicinal properties of jungle roots and herbs enables them to sustain the reputation which they possess among the other tribes as medicine men.

Occupations and character.

The Baigās are the wildest of all the forest tribes, and formerly practised only shifting cultivation, by burning down patches of jungle and sowing seed on the ground fertilized by the ashes after the breaking of the rains. Now that this practice has been prohibited in Government forests, attempts have been made to train them to regular cultivation, but with indifferent success in Bālāghāt. One explanation of their refusal to cultivate is that they consider it a sin to lacerate the breast of their mother earth with a plough-share. They also say that God made the jungle to produce everything necessary for the sustenance of man and made the Baigās kings of the forest, giving them wisdom to discover the things provided for them. To Gonds and others who had not this wisdom the inferior occupation of tilling the land was left. Men never become farm-servants, but during the cultivating season they work for hire at uprooting the rice seedlings for transplantation; they do no other agricultural labour for others. Women do the actual transplantation of rice, and work as harvesters. The men make bamboo mats and baskets which they sell in the weekly village markets; they also collect and sell honey and other forest products, and are most expert at all work that can be done with an axe, making excellent wood-cutters. But they show no aptitude in acquiring the use of any other implement and dislike continuous labour, preferring to do a few days' work and then rest in their homes for a like period before beginning again. They hunt all kinds of wild animals with spears, poisoned arrows, and axes, with a single blow of which they will often kill a leopard or other large animal. Their active and wiry frames, great powers of endurance, sharp eyes

and ears, and supple limbs make them expert trackers of wild animals. They are also very clever at setting traps and snares, and catch fish by damming streams in the hot season, and, it is said, throwing into the pool thus formed some leaf or root which causes the fish to become partially stupefied and enables them to be caught easily with the hand. They never live in a village with other castes, but have their huts some distance away in the jungle. While nominally belonging to the village near which they dwell, so separate and distinct are they from the rest of the people that in the famine of 1897 cases were found of Baigās starving in hamlets only a few hundred yards from the village proper in which ample relief was being given. In character they are simple, honest, and truthful, and when their fear of a stranger has been dissipated are most companionable folk. The Baigās have no separate language of their own, but speak a broken Hindī.

Distribution and traditions.

Khond (*Kandh*).—A Dravidian tribe mostly found in the Tributary States of Orissa, and in the adjoining Agency tract of Ganjām District, Madras. The total number of Khonds or Kandhs (including Konda Dora) returned at the Census of 1901 was 701,198, of whom no less than 517,771 retained their animistic faith, while 494,099 still spoke Kandh or Kui. The following chiefly relates to the 103,000 Khonds in the Orissa State of Kālāhandī, a large tract of which is known as the Kondhān :—

The Khonds call themselves Kūiloka or Kūienjū, which may possibly be derived from *ko* or *kū*, meaning a 'mountain' in Telugu. Their own traditions as to their origin are of no historical value. They were, however, probably in possession of the country before the Oriyā immigration, as is shown by the fact that the Rājā of Kālāhandī was accustomed until recently to sit in the lap of a Khond on his accession, while his turban was tied on and he received the oaths of fealty. The Rājās were also accustomed to take a Khond girl as one of their wives, while many of the *zamīndārs* or large landholders in Kālāhandī, Patnā, and Sonpur are Khonds.

Endogamy and exogamy.

There is no strict endogamy in the Khond tribe. It has two main divisions: the Kutiā Khonds, who are hill-men and retain their primitive tribal customs; and the plain-dwelling Khonds, who have acquired a tincture of Hinduism. The latter have formed several divisions which are supposed to be endogamous, though the rule is not strictly observed. Among these are the Rāj Khonds, Dal, Taonlā, Porkhiā, Kandharrā, Gouriā, Naglā, and others. The Rāj Khonds are the highest,

and are usually landed proprietors. Unless they have land they are not called Rāj Khonds, and if a Rāj Khond marries in another division he descends to it. The Dals, also called Balmudiā or 'shaved,' may have been soldiers. The Porkhiās eat *por*, or buffalo; the Kandharrās grow turmeric; the Gouriās graze cattle; and the Naglā, or 'naked,' are apparently so called because of their paucity of clothing. The divisions therefore are mainly due to differences of social practice. The Kutiā or hill Khonds are said to be so called because they break the skulls of animals when they kill them for food. Traditionally the Khonds have thirty-two exogamous septs, but the number has now increased. The septs are further divided into sub-septs, which are also exogamous, and are usually totemistic. The same sub-sept is found in different septs, and a man may not marry a girl belonging to the same sept or sub-sept as himself. But there is no restriction as to marriage on the mother's side, and he can marry his maternal uncle's daughter.

Customs at marriage.

Marriage is adult, and a price is paid for the bride, which was formerly from 12 to 20 head of cattle, but has now been reduced in some localities to two or three, and a rupee in lieu of each of the others. A proposal for marriage is made by placing a brass cup and three arrows at the girl's door. If these are not removed by her father in token of refusal, the terms are discussed. The wedding procession goes from the bride's to the bridegroom's house. At the marriage the bride and bridegroom come out, each sitting on the shoulders of one of their relatives. The bridegroom pulls the bride to his side, when a piece of cloth is thrown over them, and they are tied together with a piece of new yarn wound round them seven times. A cock is sacrificed, and the cheeks of the couple are singed with hot bread. They pass the night in a veranda, and next day are taken to a tank, the bridegroom being armed with a bow and arrows. He shoots one through each of seven cow-dung cakes, the bride after each shot washing his forehead and giving him a green twig for a toothbrush, and some sweets. This is symbolical of their future course of life, the husband procuring food by hunting, while the wife waits on him and prepares his food. Sexual intercourse before marriage between a man and girl of the tribe is condoned, so long as they are not within the prohibited degrees of relationship. A trace of polyandry survives in the custom by which the younger brothers are allowed access to the elder brother's wife till the time of their own marriage.

At birth. On the sixth day after a male child has been born, his mother takes a bow and arrows, and stands with the child facing successively to the four points of the compass. This is to make the child a skilful hunter when he grows up.

At death. The dead are usually buried, but the practice of cremating the bodies of adults is increasing. When a body is buried a rupee or a copper coin is tied in the sheet, so that the deceased may not go penniless to the other world. Sometimes the dead man's clothes and bows and arrows are buried with him. On the tenth day the soul is brought back. Outside the village, where two roads meet, rice is offered to a cock, and if it eats, this is a sign that the soul has come. The soul is then asked to ride on a bow-stick covered with cloth, and is brought to the house and placed in a corner with those of other relatives. The souls are fed twice a year with rice. In Sambalpur a ball of powdered rice is placed under a tree with a lamp near it, and the first insect that settles on the ball is taken to be the soul, and is brought home and worshipped.

Religion. The Khond pantheon consists of eighty-four gods, of whom Dharnī Deotā, the earth god, is the chief. He is usually accompanied by Bhātbarsī Deotā, the god of hunting. The earth god is represented by a rectangular piece of wood buried in the ground, while Bhātbarsī has a place at his feet in the shape of a granulated piece of stone. Three great festivals are held annually, marking the dates from which the new *mahuā* flowers and rice may be first eaten. Once in four or five years a buffalo is offered to the earth god, in lieu of the human sacrifice which was formerly in vogue. The animal is predestined for sacrifice from its birth, and is allowed to wander loose and graze on the crops at its will. The stone representing Bhātbarsī is examined periodically, and when the granules on it appear to have increased it is decided that the time has come for the sacrifice. In Kālāhandī a lamb is sacrificed every year, and strips of its flesh distributed to all the villagers, who bury it in their fields as a divine agent of fertilization, in the same way as the flesh of the human victim was formerly buried. The Khond worships his bows and arrows before he goes out hunting, and believes that every hill and valley has its separate deity, who must be propitiated with the promise of a sacrifice before his territory is entered, or he will hide the animals within it from the hunter, and enable them to escape when wounded. They apparently believe that the souls of the departed are born again in children. Some boys are named Majhian Budhi, which means an 'old headwoman,' whom they

suppose to have been born again with a change of sex. Children are weaned in the fifth or sixth year, and are then made to ride a goat or pig, as a mark of respect, it is said, to the ancestor who has been reborn in them. Names usually recur after the third generation.

Occupation. The Khond traditionally despises all occupations except those of husbandry, hunting, and war. They are considered very skilful cultivators in places, but elsewhere, like other forest tribes, they are improvident and fond of drink.

The Khond rising. In 1882 occurred an armed rising of the Khonds of Kālāhandī, as a result of their grievances against members of the Koltā caste, who had ousted them from some of their villages, and reduced many of their headmen to a hopeless condition of debt. A number of Koltās were murdered and offered to temples, the Khonds calling them their goats, and in one case a Koltā was offered as the Meriah sacrifice to the earth god. The rising was promptly suppressed by a Political officer appointed to the charge of the State.

Language. The Khond or Kandh language, called Kui by the Khonds themselves, is spoken by 32 per cent. of the members of the tribe in Kālāhandī. It is much more nearly related to Telugu than is Gondī, and has no written character. Further information about the Khonds will be found in the articles on the KHONDMĀLS, ANGUL DISTRICT, and MĀLIAHS.

Distribution and traditions. **Korkū.**—A primitive tribe in the Central Provinces. Out of 140,000 Korkūs enumerated in India in 1901, nearly 100,000 belonged to the Central Provinces and the remainder to Berār and Central India. They dwell almost exclusively on the west of the Sātpurā range in the Districts of Hoshangābād, Nimār, and Betūl. The word Korkū simply signifies 'men' or 'tribesmen,' *kor* meaning 'man' and *kū* being a plural termination. The Korkūs have been identified with the Korwās of Chotā Nāgpur, and it is not improbable that they are an offshoot of this tribe, who have a legend giving the Mahādeo or Pachmarhī hills as their original home. The Rāj Korkūs now claim to be descended from Rājputs, and say they came from Dhārānagar, the modern Ujjain, whence their ancestors were led to the Pachmarhī hills in the pursuit of a *sāmbar* stag. This legend is of the usual Brāhmanical type, and has no importance.

Endogamy and exogamy. They have four endogamous divisions, the Mowāsis and Bāwariās in a higher rank, and the Rūmas and Bondoyās in a lower one. The Mowāsis and Bāwariās are Rāj Korkūs occupying the status of cultivators, and Brāhmans will take

water from them. The term Mowāsi means a resident of Mowās, the name given to the western Sātpurā Hills by the Marāthās, and signifying the 'troubled country,' a reminiscence of the time when the Korkūs were notorious robbers and freebooters. Bāwariā means a resident of Bhowargarh, in Betūl. Each division has thirty-six exogamous septs, which are mainly named after trees and animals, and are totemistic. The Korkūs have generally forgotten the meaning of the sept names, and pay no reverence to their totems, except in one or two cases.

Customs at marriage.

Ten of the septs consider the regular marriage of girls inauspicious, and simply give away their daughters without the performance of any ceremony. Among the others several formalities precede the marriage ceremony. A proposal for marriage is in the first place made by the father of the boy to the father of the girl, and the latter is bound by etiquette to continue refusing the suggested alliance for a period varying from six months to two years, and averaging about a year. The father always receives a sum of about Rs. 50 for the loss of his daughter's services, and if the girl is once betrothed, the payment is due even should she die before marriage. Before the wedding procession starts the bridegroom and his elder brother's wife are made to stand on a blanket together and embrace each other seven times. This is possibly a survival of the old custom of fraternal polyandry still existing among the KHONDS. The bridegroom receives a knife or a dagger with a lemon spiked on the blade to scare away evil spirits, and the party then proceeds outside the village, where the boy and his parents sit under a *ber* tree (*Zizyphus Jujuba*). The Bhumkā or caste-priest ties all three with a thread to the tree, to which a chicken is then offered in the name of the sun and moon, whom the Korkūs consider to be their ultimate ancestors. On reaching the bride's village the progress of the wedding procession is barred by a leathern rope stretched across the road by the bride's relatives, who have to receive a bribe of two pice each before it is allowed to pass. The marriage is completed by an imitation of the *bhānwar* ceremony or walking round the sacred pole.

At death.

After death, ceremonies must be performed in order to cause the soul of the deceased person to take up its residence with the ancestors of the tribe, who are supposed to pass a colourless existence in a village of their own. Bodies are buried, two pice being thrown into the grave to buy the site. No mourning is observed, but some days after death the

members of the family repair to the burial-place carrying with them a piece of turmeric. This is sliced up and put into a leaf cup and water poured over it. A piece is then laid on the tomb, and the remainder brought back tied up in a cloth, and placed under the main beam of the house which is the dwelling-place of the ancestors. A second ceremony called the *sedoli* may be performed at any time within fifteen years. Each sept has a separate place for its performance, where a stake called *mūnda* is set up for every one whose rites are separately performed, while in the case of poor families one stake does for several persons. On the stake are carved representations of the sun and moon, a spider and a human ear, and a figure representing the principal person in whose honour it is put up, on horseback, with weapons in his hand. For the performance of the ceremony the stake is taken to the house, and the pieces of turmeric previously tied up are untied, and they and the post are besmeared with the blood of a sacrificial goat. After the stake has been placed in the ground, the pieces of turmeric are carried to a river, made into a ball, and allowed to sink, the Korkūs saying, 'Ancestors, find your home.' If the ball does not sink at once, they consider that it is due to the difficulty experienced by the ancestors in the selection of a house, and throw in two pice to assist them. After this ceremony the spirits of the ancestors are laid, but before its performance they may return at any time to vex the living.

Religion.

The Korkūs generally call themselves Hindus, and profess veneration for Mahādeo, of whose shrine in the Pachmarhī hills two Korkū landowners are hereditary guardians. They also worship a number of tribal deities, among whom may be mentioned Dongar Deo, the god of the hills; Muthā or Mutwā Deo, the general deity of disease, who is represented by a heap of stones outside the village; Kunwar Deo, the god who presides over the growth of children; and others. They have caste priests called Bhumkās, who are members of the tribe; the office is sometimes but not necessarily hereditary, and if it is vacant a new Bhumkā is chosen by lot. The Bhumkā performs the usual functions and has special powers for the control of tigers.

Physical appearance and dress.

The Korkūs are well-built and muscular, slightly taller than the Gonds, a shade darker, and a good deal dirtier. They are in great request as farm-servants, owing to their honesty and simplicity. They are as a rule very poor, and have even less clothing than the Gonds, and where the two tribes are found together the Gonds are more civilized and have the best land.

Language. The tribe have a language of their own, called after them Korkū, which belongs to the Mundā family. It was returned by 88,000 persons in 1901, of whom 59,000 belonged to the Central Provinces. The number of Korkū speakers is 59 per cent. of the total of the tribe, and has greatly decreased during the last decade.

Geographical extent and position. **Vindhya Hills** (*Ouindion* of Ptolemy).—A range of hills separating the Gangetic basin from the Deccan, and forming a well-marked chain across the centre of India. The name was formerly used in an indefinite manner to include the Sātpurā Hills south of the Narbadā, but is now restricted to the ranges north of that river. The Vindhyas do not form a range of hills in the proper geological sense of the term, that is, possessing a definite axis of elevation or lying along an anticlinal or synclinal ridge. The range to the north of the Narbadā, and its eastern continuation the Kaimur to the north of the Son valley, are merely the southern scarps of the plateau comprising the country known as Mālwā and Bundelkhand. The features of the Vindhyas are due to sub-aerial denudation, and the hills constitute a dividing line left undenuded between different drainage areas. From a geographical point of view the Vindhyan range may be regarded as extending from Jobat (22° 27′ N. and 74° 35′ E.) in Gujarāt on the west to Sasarām (24° 57′ N. and 84° 2′ E.) in the south-western corner of Bihār on the east, with a total length of nearly 700 miles. Throughout the whole length as thus defined the range constitutes the southern escarpment of a plateau. The Rājmahāl hills, extending from Sasarām to Rājmahāl and forming the northern escarpment of the Hazāribāgh highlands, cannot be correctly considered as a part of the Vindhyas.

Orographical features. The range commencing in Gujarāt crosses the Central India Agency from Jhābuā State in the west, and defines the southern boundary of the Saugor and Damoh Districts of the Central Provinces. From here the Kaimur branch of the range runs through Baghelkhand or Rewah and the United Provinces into Bihār. The Kaimur Hills rise like a wall to the north of the Son valley, and north of them a succession of short parallel ridges and deep ravines extends for about 50 miles. At Amarkantak the Vindhyas touch the Sātpurā Hills at the source of the Narbadā. Westward from Jubbulpore District they form the northern boundary of the valley of that river. Their appearance here is very distinctive, presenting an almost uninterrupted series of headlands with projecting promontories and receding bays like a weather-beaten coast-line. In places the

Narbadā washes the base of the rocks for miles, while elsewhere they recede and are seen from the river only as a far-off outline with the plains of Bhopāl or Indore spread out below them. The rocks are sandstone of a pinkish colour and lie in horizontal slabs, which commonly testify to their origin by curious ripple marks plainly formed by the lapping of water on a sandy shore. To the north of this escarpment lies the Bundelkhand or Mālwā plateau, with a length of about 250 miles and a width at its broadest part of about 225 miles. The plateau is undulating and is traversed by small ranges of hills, all of which are considered to belong to the Vindhyan system.

Outlying ranges.

The most northerly of these minor ranges, called the Bindhāchal, cuts across the Jhānsi, Bāndā, Allahābād, and Mirzāpur Districts of the United Provinces, nowhere rising above 2,000 feet. The range presents the appearance of a series of plateaux, each sloping gently upward from south to north, and ending abruptly in the steep scarp which is characteristic of these hills. Many outlying isolated hills are found in these Districts standing out on the plains beyond the farthest scarp. One small hill, called Pabhosā, stands on the left bank of the Jumna, the only rock found in the Doāb. The Bhānrer or Pannā hills form the south-eastern face of the Vindhyan escarpment, and bound the south of Saugor and Damoh Districts and the north of Maihar State in continuation of the Kaimur, thus being a part of the main range. They run from north-west to south-east for about 120 miles. Their highest peak is that of Kalumar (2,544 feet). Two other branches of the range lie in Mālwā, starting respectively near Bhīlsa and Jhābuā with a northerly direction, and bounding the plateau to the east and west.

Elevation and drainage.

The general elevation of the Vindhyan range is from 1,500 to 2,000 feet, and it contains a few peaks above 3,000, none of which is of any special importance. The range forms with the Sātpurās the watershed of the centre of India, containing the sources of the Chambal, Betwā, Sonār, Dhasān, and Ken rivers, besides others of less importance. The Son and Narbadā rise at Amarkantak, where the Vindhyan and Sātpurā ranges join. The rivers generally rise near the southern escarpment and flow north and north-east.

Geological formation.

Geologically, the hills are formed principally of great massive sandstones of varying consistency, alternating with softer flags and shales, the whole formation covering an area not greatly inferior to that of England. The range has given its name to

the Vindhyan system of geological nomenclature. Over a great part of the Mālwā plateau the sandstone is covered by the overflowing Deccan trap, while from Ganurgarh fort in Bhopāl to near Jobat the range itself is of basaltic formation, and the last 60 miles to the west from Jobat to near Jambhughorā consist of metamorphic rocks. In the north the underlying gneiss is exposed in a great gulf-like expanse. Economically, the Vindhyan rocks are of considerable value, the sandstone being an excellent building material which has been extensively used for centuries; the Buddhist topes of Sānchi and Bharhut, the eleventh-century temples of Khajurāho, the fifteenth-century palaces of Gwalior, and numerous large forts at all important positions on the plateau having been constructed of this material. At Nāgod and other places limestone is found in some quantity, the pretty coralline variety, extracted from the Bāgh cretaceous beds, having been extensively employed in the palaces and tombs at Māndū; and at Pannā, in the conglomerate which underlies the shales, diamonds are met with, though none of any great value is known to have been extracted. Manganese, iron, and asbestos are also found in various parts of the range. The lofty flat-topped hills and bold scarps which are such a marked feature of this range were early recognized as ideal sites for fortresses; and, besides the historical strongholds of Gwalior, Narwar, Chanderī, Māndū, Ajaigarh, and Bandogarh, the hills are studded with the ruined castles of marauding Girāsia and Bundelā chiefs.

Forests. The hills are generally covered with a stunted forest growth of the species found in the dry forests of Central India. Teak occurs only in patches and is of small size, while the forests are generally noticeable for their poverty in valuable timbers.

Mythological associations. The term Vindhya in Sanskrit signifies 'a hunter'; and the range occupies a considerable place in the mythology of India, as the demarcating line between the Madhya Desa or 'middle land' of the Sanskrit invaders and the non-Aryan Deccan. The Vindhyas are personified in Sanskrit literature, where they appear as a jealous monarch, the rival of king Himālaya, who called upon the sun to revolve round his throne as he did round the peak Meru. When the sun refused, the mountain began to rear its head to obstruct that luminary, and to tower above Himālaya and Meru. The gods invoked the aid of Agastya, the spiritual guide of Vindhya. This sage called upon the Vindhya mountain to bow down before him, and afford him an easy passage to and from the South. It obeyed and

Agastya passed over. But he never returned, and so the mountain remains to the present day in its humbled condition, far inferior to the Himālaya. Another legend is that when Lakshmana, the brother of Rāma, was wounded in Ceylon by the king of the demons, he wished for the leaves of a plant which grew in the Himālayas to apply them to his wound. Hanūman, the monkey-god, was sent to get it, and not knowing which plant it was, he took up a part of the Himālayas and carried them to Ceylon. He happened to drop a portion of his load on the way, and from this the Vindhyan Hills were formed.

Kaimur Hills.—The eastern portion of the Vindhyan range, commencing near Katangī in the Jubbulpore District of the Central Provinces (23° 26′ N. and 79° 48′ E.). It runs a little north of east for more than 300 miles to Sasarām in Bihār (24° 57′ N. and 84° 2′ E.). The range, after traversing the north of Jubbulpore District and the south-east of Maihar State, turns to the east and runs through Rewah territory, separating the valleys of the Son and Tons rivers, and continues into Mirzāpur District of the United Provinces and Shāhābād in Bengal. Its maximum width is 50 miles. In the Central Provinces the appearance of the range is very distinctive. The rock formation is metamorphic and the strata have been upheaved into an almost vertical position, giving the range the appearance of a sharp ridge. In places the range almost disappears, being marked only by a low rocky chain, and in this portion it never rises more than a few hundred feet above the plain. The range enters Central India at Jukehi in Maihar State (23° 29′ N. and 80° 27′ E.), and runs for 150 miles in a north-easterly direction, forming the northern wall of the Son valley and overhanging the river in a long bold scarp of sandstone rock, from which near Govindgarh a branch turns off to the north-west. The range here attains an elevation of a little over 2,000 feet. In Mirzāpur the height of the range decreases in the centre to rise again to over 2,000 feet at the rock of Bijaigarh with its ancient fort. Interesting relics of prehistoric man have been found in the caves and rock-shelters of the hills here, in the form of rude drawings and stone implements. In Shāhābād District the summit of the hills consists of a series of saucer-shaped valleys, each a few miles in diameter, containing a deposit of rich vegetable mould in the centre and producing the finest crops. The general height of the plateau is here 1,500 feet above sea-level. The sides are precipitous, but there are several

passes, some of which are practicable for beasts of burden. The ruined fort of ROHTĀS is situated on these hills. The rocks throughout consist principally of sandstones and shales.

Geographical position.

Sātpurās (or Satpurās).—A range of hills in the centre of India. The name, which is modern, originally belonged only to the hills which divide the Narbadā and Tāpti valleys in Nimār (Central Provinces), and which were styled the *sātputra* or 'seven sons' of the Vindhyan mountains. Another derivation is from *sātpura* ('sevenfolds'), referring to the numerous parallel ridges of the range. The term Sātpurās is now, however, customarily applied to the whole range which, commencing at Amarkantak in Rewah, Central India (22° 41′ N. and 81° 48′ E.), runs south of the Narbadā river nearly down to the western coast. The Sātpurās are sometimes, but incorrectly, included under the VINDHYA range. Taking Amarkantak as the eastern boundary, the Sātpurās extend from east to west for about 600 miles, and in their greatest width, where they stretch down to Berār, exceed 100 miles from north to south. The shape of the range is almost triangular. From Amarkantak an outer ridge (see MAIKALA) runs south-west for about 100 miles to the Sāletekri hills in Bālāghāt District (Central Provinces), thus forming as it were the head of the range which, shrinking as it proceeds westward from a broad table-land to two parallel ridges, ends, so far as the Central Provinces are concerned, at the famous hill fortress of ASĪRGARH. Beyond this point the Rājpīpla hills, which separate the valley of the Narbadā from that of the Tāpti, complete the chain as far as the Western Ghāts. On the table-land comprised between the northern and southern faces of the range are situated the Central Provinces Districts of Mandlā, part of Bālāghāt, Seonī, Chhindwāra, and Betūl.

Geological formation.

The superficial stratum covering the main Sātpurā range is trappean, but in parts of the Central Provinces crystalline rocks are uppermost, and over the Pachmarhī hills sandstone is also uncovered. In Mandlā the higher peaks are capped with laterite. On the north and south the approaches to the Sātpurās are marked as far west as Turanmāl by low lines of foot-hills. These are succeeded by the steep slopes leading up to the summit of the plateau, traversed in all directions by narrow deep ravines, hollowed out by the action of the streams and rivers, and covered throughout their extent with forest.

Features of the plateau.

Portions of the Sātpurā plateau consist, as in Mandlā and the north of Chhindwāra, of a rugged mass of hills hurled together by volcanic action. But the greater part is an un-

dulating table-land, a succession of bare stony ridges and narrow fertile valleys, into which the soil has been deposited by drainage. In a few level tracts, as in the valleys of the Māchna and Sāmpna near Betūl, and the open plain between Seonī and Chhindwāra, there are extensive areas of productive land. Scattered over the plateau, isolated flat-topped hills rise abruptly from the plain. The scenery of the northern and southern hills, as observed from the roads which traverse them, is of remarkable beauty. The drainage of the Sātpurās is carried off on the north by the Narbadā, and on the south by the Waingangā, Wardhā, and Tāpti, all of which have their source in these hills.

Height. The highest peaks are contained in the northern range, rising abruptly from the valley of the Narbadā, and generally sloping down to the plateau, but towards the west the southern range has the greater elevation. Another noticeable feature is a number of small table-lands lying among the hills at a greater height than the bulk of the plateau. Of these PACHMARHĪ (3,530 feet) and CHIKALDA in Berār (3,664 feet) have been formed into hill stations: while Raigarh (2,200 feet) in Bālāghāt District and Khāmla in Betūl (3,800 feet) are famous grazing and breeding grounds for cattle. Dhūpgarh (4,454 feet) is the highest point on the range, and there are a few others of over 4,000 feet. Among the peaks that rise from 3,000 to 3,800 feet above sea-level, the grandest is TURANMĀL (Bombay Presidency), a long, rather narrow, table-land 3,300 feet above the sea and about 16 square miles in area. West of this the mountainous land presents a wall-like appearance towards both the Narbadā on the north and the Tāpti on the south. On the eastern side the Tāsdin Vali (Central India) commands a magnificent view of the surrounding country. The general height of the plateau is about 2,000 feet.

Forests. The hills and slopes are clothed with forest extending over some thousands of square miles; but much of this is of little value, owing to unrestricted fellings prior to the adoption of a system of conservancy, and to the shifting cultivation practised by the aboriginal tribes, which led to patches being annually cleared and burnt down. The most valuable forests are those of *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) on the eastern hills, and teak on the west.

Hill tribes. The Sātpurā Hills have formed in the past a refuge for aboriginal or Dravidian tribes driven out of the plains by the advance of Hindu civilization. Here they retired, and occupied the stony and barren slopes which the new settlers, with the

rich lowlands at their disposal, disdained to cultivate; and here they still rear their light rains crops of millets which are scarcely more than grass, barely tickling the soil with the plough, and eking out a scanty subsistence with the roots and fruits of the forests, and the pursuit of game. The BAIGĀS, the wildest of these tribes, have even now scarcely attained to the rudiments of cultivation, but the GONDS, the KORKŪS, and the BHĪLS have made some progress by contact with their Hindu neighbours.

Communications. The open plateau has for two or three centuries been peopled by Hindu immigrants; but it is only in the last fifty years that travelling has been rendered safe and easy, by the construction of metalled roads winding up the steep passes, and enabling wheeled traffic to pass over the heavy land of the valleys. Till then such trade as existed was conducted by nomad Banjārās on pack-bullocks. The first railway across the Sātpurā plateau, a narrow-gauge extension of the Bengal-Nāgpur line from Gondiā to Jubbulpore, has recently been opened. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway, from Bombay to Jubbulpore, runs through a breach in the range just east of Asīrgarh, while the Bombay-Agra road crosses farther to the west.

Maikala (or *Mekala*).—A range of hills in the Central Provinces and Central India, lying between 21° 11′ and 22° 40′ N. and 80° 46′ and 81° 46′ E. It is the connecting link between the great hill systems of the VINDHYAS and SĀTPURĀS, forming respectively the northern and southern walls of the Narbadā valley. Starting in the Khairāgarh State of the Central Provinces, the range runs in a general south-easterly direction for the first 46 miles in British territory, and then entering the Sohāgpur *pargana* of Rewah State, terminates 84 miles farther at AMARKANTAK, one of the most sacred places in India, where the source of the Narbadā river is situated. Unlike the two great ranges which it connects, the Maikala forms a broad plateau of 880 square miles in extent, mostly forest country inhabited by Gonds. The elevation of the range does not ordinarily exceed 2,000 feet, but the Lāpha hill, which is a detached peak belonging to it, rises to 3,500 feet. The range is best known for the magnificent forests of *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) which clothe its heights in many places. These are mainly situated in *zamīndāri* estates or those of Feudatory chiefs and hence are not subject to any strict system of conservation, and have been much damaged by indiscriminate fellings. The hills are mentioned in ancient Hindu literature as the place of Maikala Rishi's penance, though Vyāsa, Bhrigu, Agastya, and other sages are also credited with having

meditated in the forests. Their greatest claim to sanctity lies, however, in the presence upon them of the sources of the NARBADĀ and SON rivers. The Mārkandeya Purāna relates how, when Siva called successively on all the mountains of India to find a home for the Narbadā, only Maikala offered to receive her, thus gaining undying fame; and hence the Narbadā is often called Maikala-Kanyā or 'daughter of Maikala.' The Mahānadī and Johillā, as well as many minor streams, also have their sources in these hills. Local tradition relates that in the fourth and fifth centuries A.D., during the Gupta rule, this plateau was highly populated; and the Rāmāyana and the Purānas mention the Mekhalās as a tribe of the Vindhya range, the former work placing them next the Utkalas or people of Orissa. The Rewah State has lately begun to open up the plateau. Iron ore is met with in some quantity, and is still worked at about twenty villages to supply the local demand.

Sonār.—A river in the Central Provinces, the centre of the drainage system of the Vindhyan plateau comprising the Districts of Saugor and Damoh, with a northward course to the JUMNA. It rises in the low hills in the south-west of Saugor (23° 22′ N. and 78° 37′ E.), and flowing in a north-easterly direction through that District and Damoh, joins the KEN in Bundelkhand, a short distance beyond the boundary of Damoh. Of its total course of 116 miles, all but the last four miles are within the Central Provinces. The river does not attain to any great breadth and flows in a deep channel, its bed being usually stony. It is not navigable and no use is made of its waters for irrigation. The valley of the Sonār lying in the south of Saugor and the centre of Damoh is composed of fertile black soil formed from the detritus of volcanic rock. The principal tributaries of the Sonār are the Dehār joining it at Rehlī, the Gadherī at Garhākotā, the Bewas near Narsinghgarh, the Koprā near Sītānagar, and the Beārma just beyond the Damoh border. Rehlī, Garhākotā, Hattā, and Narsinghgarh are the most important places situated on its banks. The Indian Midland Railway (Bīna-Katnī branch) crosses the river between the stations of Pathariā and Aslāna.

Son (Sanskrit *Suvarna* or 'gold'; also called *Hiranya-Vāha* or *Hiranya-Vāhu*; the *Sonos* of Arrian; also identified with the *Erannoboas* of Arrian).—A large river of Northern India, which, flowing from the Amarkantak highlands (22° 42′ N., 82° 4′ E.), first north and then east, joins the GANGES 10 miles above Dinapore, after a course of about 487 miles.

The Son rises near the Narbadā at Amarkantak in the Maikala range, the hill on which its nominal source is located being called Son-bhadra or more commonly Son-mundā. It possesses great sanctity, the performance of *sandhyā* on its banks ensuring absolution and the attainment of heaven even to the slayer of a Brāhman. Legends about the stream are numerous, one of the most picturesque assigning the origin of the Son and Narbadā to two tears dropped by Brāhma, one on either side of the Amarkantak range. The Son is frequently mentioned in Hindu literature, in the Rāmāyanas of Vālmīki and Tulsī Dās, the Bhagwat, and other works.

Soon after leaving its source, the Son falls in a cascade over the edge of the Amarkantak plateau amid the most picturesque surroundings, and flows through the Bilāspur District of the Central Provinces till it enters Rewah State at 23° 6′ N. and 81° 59′ E. From this point till it leaves the Central India Agency after a course of 288 miles, the stream flows through a maze of valley and hill, for the most part in a narrow rocky channel, but expanding in favourable spots into magnificent deep broad reaches locally called *dahār*, the favourite resorts of the fisher caste. Following at first a northerly course, near its junction with the Mahānadī river at Sarsi it meets the bold scarp of the KAIMUR range and is turned into a north-easterly direction, finally leaving the Agency 5 miles east of Deorā village. In Central India three other affluents of importance are received: one on the left bank, the Johillā, which likewise rises at Amarkantak and joins it at Barwālū village; and two which join it on the right bank, the Banās at 23° 17′ N. and 81° 31′ E., and the Gopat near Bardī. In the United Provinces the Son flows for about 55 miles from west to east across Mirzāpur District, in a deep valley never more than 8 or 9 miles broad, often narrowing to a gorge, and receives from the south two tributaries, the Rihand and the Kanhar. During the dry season it is shallow but rapid, varying in breadth from 60 to 100 yards, and is easily fordable. The Son enters Bengal in 24° 31′ N. and 83° 24′ E., and flows in a north-westerly direction, separating the District of Shāhābād from Palāmau, Gayā, and Patna till, after a course within Bengal of 144 miles, it falls into the Ganges in 25° 40′ N. and 84° 59′ E.

So far as regards navigation, the Son is mainly used for floating down large rafts of bamboos and a little timber. During the rainy season, native boats of large tonnage occasionally proceed for a short distance up stream; but navigation is then rendered dangerous by the extraordinary violence of the flood, and

throughout the rest of the year becomes impossible, owing to the small depth of water. The great irrigation system known as the SON CANALS is served by this river, the water being distributed west to Shāhābād and east to Gayā and Patna from a dam constructed at DEHRĪ. In the lower portion of its course the Son is marked by several striking characteristics. Its bed is enormously wide, in some places stretching for three miles from bank to bank. During the greater part of the year this broad channel is merely a waste of drifting sand, with an insignificant stream that is nearly everywhere fordable. The discharge of water at this time is estimated to fall as low as 620 cubic feet per second. But in the rainy season, and especially just after a storm has burst on the plateau of Central India, the river rises with incredible rapidity. The entire rainfall of an area of about 21,300 square miles requires to find an outlet by this channel, which frequently proves unable to carry off the total flood discharge, calculated at 830,000 cubic feet per second. These heavy floods are of short duration, seldom lasting for more than four days; but in recent years they have wrought much destruction in the low-lying plains of Shāhābād. Near the site of the great dam at Dehrī the Son is crossed by the grand trunk road on a stone causeway; and lower down, near Koelwār, the East Indian Railway has been carried across on a lattice-girder bridge. This bridge, begun for a single line of rails in 1855, and finally completed for a double line in 1870, has a total length of 4,199 feet from back to back of the abutments.

The Son possesses historical interest as being probably identical with the *Erannoboas* of Greek geographers, which is thought to be a corruption of *Hiranya-vāhu*, or 'the golden-armed' (a title of Siva), a name which the Son anciently bore. The old town of Pālibothrā or Pātaliputra, corresponding to the modern PATNA, was situated at the confluence of the *Erannoboas* and the Ganges; and, in addition, we know that the junction of the Son with the Ganges has been gradually receding westwards. Old channels of the Son have been found between Bankipore and Dinapore, and even below the present site of Patna. In the Bengal Atlas of 1772 the junction is marked near Maner, and it would seem to have been at the same spot in the seventeenth century; it is now about 10 miles higher up the Ganges.

Narbadā (*Narmada*; the *Namados* of Ptolemy; *Namnadios* of the Periplus).—One of the most important rivers of India. It rises on the summit of the plateau of AMARKANTAK

(22° 41′ N. and 81° 48′ E.), at the north-eastern apex of the Sātpurā range, in Rewah (Central India), and enters the sea below Broach in the Bombay Presidency after a total course of 801 miles.

Course of the river.

The river issues from a small tank 3,000 feet above the sea, surrounded by a group of temples and guarded by an isolated colony of priests, and falls over a basaltic cliff in a descent of 80 feet. After a course of about 40 miles through the State of Rewah, it enters the Central Provinces and winds circuitously through the rugged hills of Mandlā, pursuing a westerly course until it flows under the walls of the ruined palace of Rāmnagar. From Rāmnagar to Mandlā town it forms, for some 15 miles, a deep reach of blue water, unbroken by rocks and clothed on either bank by forest. The river then turns north in a narrow loop towards Jubbulpore, close to which town, after a fall of some 30 feet called the *dhuāndhāra* or 'fall of mist,' it flows for two miles in a narrow channel which it has carved out for itself through rocks of marble and basalt, its width here being only about 20 yards. Emerging from this channel, which is well known as the 'Marble Rocks,' and flowing west, it enters the fertile basin of alluvial land forming the Narbadā valley, which lies between the Vindhyan and Sātpurā Hills, and extends for 200 miles from Jubbulpore to Handiā, with a width of about 20 miles to the south of the river. The Vindhyan Hills rise almost sheer from the northern bank along most of the valley, the bed of the river at this part of its course being the boundary between the Central Provinces and Central India (principally the States of Bhopāl and Indore). Here the Narbadā passes Hoshangābād and the old Muhammadan towns of Handiā and Nimāwar. The banks in this part of its valley are about 40 feet high, and the fall in its course between Jubbulpore and Hoshangābād is 340 feet. Below Handiā the hills again approach the river on both sides and are clothed with dense forests, the favourite haunts of the Pindāris and other robbers of former days. At Mandhār, 25 miles below Handiā, there is a fall of 40 feet, and another of the same height occurs at Punāsa. The bed of the river in its whole length within the Central Provinces is one sheet of basalt, seldom exceeding 150 yards in absolute width, and, at intervals of every few miles, upheaved into ridges which cross it diagonally, and behind which deep pools are formed. Emerging from the hills beyond Māndhāta on the borders of the Central Provinces, the Narbadā now enters a second open alluvial basin, flowing through Central India (principally the

State of Indore) for nearly 100 miles. The hills are here well away from the river, the Sātpurās being 40 miles to the south and the Vindhyas about 16 miles to the north. In this part of its course the river passes the town of Maheshwar, the old capital of the Holkar family, where its northern bank is studded with temples, palaces, and bathing *ghāts*, many of them built by the famous Ahalyā Bai whose mausoleum is here. The last 170 miles of the river's course are in the Bombay Presidency, where it first separates the States of Baroda and Rājpīpla and then meanders through the fertile District of Broach. Below BROACH CITY it gradually widens into an estuary, whose shores are 17 miles apart as it joins the Gulf of Cambay.

Drainage area, tributaries, &c. The drainage area of the Narbadā, estimated at about 36,000 square miles, is principally to the south and comprises the northern portion of the Sātpurā plateau and the valley Districts. The principal tributaries are the Banjār in Mandlā, the Sher and Shakkar in Narsinghpur, and the Tawā, Ganjāl, and Chhotā Tawā in Hoshangābād District. The only important tributary to the north is the Hiran, which flows in beneath the Vindhyan Hills, in Jubbulpore District. Most of these rivers have a short and precipitous course from the hills, and fill with extraordinary rapidity in the rains, producing similarly rapid floods in the Narbadā itself. Owing to this and to its rocky course, the Narbadā is useless for navigation except by country boats between August and February, save in the last part of its course, where it is navigable by vessels of 70 tons burden up to the city of Broach, 30 miles from its mouth. It is crossed by railway bridges below Jubbulpore, at Hoshangābād, and at Mortakka. The influence of the tides reaches to a point 55 miles from the sea. The height of the banks throughout the greater part of its course makes the river useless for irrigation.

Sacred character of the river. The Narbadā, which is referred to as the Rewā (probably from the Sanskrit root *rev*, 'to hop,' owing to the leaping of the stream down its rocky bed) in the Mahābhārata and Rāmāyana, is said to have sprung from the body of Siva and is one of the most sacred rivers of India, local devotees placing it above the Ganges, on the ground that whereas it is necessary to bathe in the Ganges for forgiveness of sins, this object is attained by mere contemplation of the Narbadā. 'As wood is cut by a saw (says a Hindu proverb), so at the sight of the holy Narbadā do a man's sins fall away.' Gangā herself, so local legend avers, must dip in the Narbadā once a year. She

comes in the form of a coal-black cow, but returns home quite white, free from all sin. The Ganges, moreover, was (according to the *Rewā Purāna*) to have lost its purifying virtues in the year 1895, though this fact has not yet impaired its reputation for sanctity. At numerous places on the course of the Narbadā, and especially at spots where it is joined by another river, are groups of temples, tended by Narmdeo Brāhmans, the special priests of the river, where annual gatherings of pilgrims take place. The most celebrated of these are Bherāghāt, Barmhān, and Onkār Māndhāta in the Central Provinces, and Barwānī in Central India, where the Narbadā is joined by the Kapilā. All of these are connected by legends with saints and heroes of Hindu mythology, and the description of the whole course of the Narbadā, and of all these places and their history, is contained in a sacred poem of 14,000 verses (the *Narmadā Khanda*), which, however, has been adjudged to be of somewhat recent origin. Every year 300 or more pilgrims start to perform the *pradakshina* of the Narbadā, that is, to walk from its mouth at Broach to its source at Amarkantak on one side, and back on the other, a performance of the highest religious efficacy. The most sacred spots on the lower course of the river are Suklatīrtha, where stands an old banyan-tree that bears the name of the saint Kabīr, and the site of Rājā Bali's horse-sacrifice near Broach.

Historical associations.

The Narbadā is commonly considered to form the boundary between Hindustān and the Deccan, the reckoning of the Hindu year differing on either side of it. The Marāthās spoke of it as 'the river,' and considered that when they had crossed it they were in a foreign country. During the Mutiny the Narbadā practically marked the southern limit of the insurrection. North of it the British temporarily lost control of the country, while to the south, in spite of isolated disturbances, their authority was maintained. Hence, when, in 1858, Tāntia Topi executed his daring raid across the river, the utmost apprehension was excited, as it was feared that on the appearance of the representative of the Peshwā, the recently annexed Nāgpur territories would rise in revolt. These fears, however, proved to be unfounded and the country remained tranquil.

Tāpti.—One of the great rivers of Western India. The name is derived from *tāp*, 'heat,' and the Tāpti is said by the Brāhmans to have been created by the sun to protect himself from his own warmth. The Tāpti is believed to rise in the sacred tank of Multai (*multāpi*, 'the source of the Tāpti') on the Sātpurā plateau, but its real source is two miles distant

(21° 48′ N. and 78° 15′ E.). It flows in a westerly direction through the Betūl District of the Central Provinces, at first traversing an open and partially cultivated plain, and then plunging into a rocky gorge of the Sātpurā Hills between the Kālībhīt range in Nimār (Central Provinces) and Chikalda in Berār. Its bed here is rocky, overhung by steep banks, and bordered by forests. At a distance of 120 miles from its source it enters the Nimār District of the Central Provinces and for 30 miles more is still confined in a comparatively narrow valley. A few miles above Burhānpur the valley opens out, the Sātpurā Hills receding north and south, and opposite that town the river valley has become a fine rich basin of alluvial soil about 20 miles wide. In the centre of this tract the Tāpti flows between the towns of Burhānpur and Zainābād, and then passes into the Khāndesh District of Bombay. In its upper valley are several basins of exceedingly rich soil; but they have long been covered by forest, and it is only lately that the process of clearing them for cultivation has been undertaken.

Shortly after entering Khāndesh the Tāpti receives on the left bank the Pūrna from the hills of Berār, and then flows for about 150 miles through a broad and fertile valley, bounded on the north by the Sātpurās and on the south by the Sātmālas. Farther on the hills close in, and the river descends through wild and wooded country for about 80 miles, after which it sweeps southward to the sea through the alluvial plain of Surat, and becomes a tidal river for the last 30 miles of its course. The banks (30 to 60 feet) are too high for irrigation, while the bed is crossed at several places by ridges of rock, so that the river is navigable for only about 20 miles from the sea. The Tāpti runs so near the foot of the Sātpurās that its tributaries on the right bank are small; but on the left bank, after its junction with the Pūrna, it receives through the Girnā (150 miles long) the drainage of the hills of Bāglān, and through the Bori, the Pānjhra, and the Borai, that of the northern buttress of the Western Ghāts. The waters of the Girnā and the Pānjhra are dammed up in several places and used for irrigation. On the lower course of the Tāpti floods are not uncommon, and have at times done much damage to the city of Surat. The river is crossed at Bhusāwal by the Jubbulpore branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, at Savalda by the Bombay-Agra road, and at Surat by the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The Tāpti has a local reputation for sanctity, the chief *tīrthas* or holy places

being Chāngdeo, at the confluence with the Pūrna, and Bodhān above Surat. The fort of Thālner and the city of SURAT are the places of most historic note on its course, the total length of which is 436 miles. The port of Suvāli (Swally), famous in early European commerce with India, and the scene of a famous sea-fight between the British and the Portuguese, lay at the mouth of the river, but is now deserted, its approaches having been silted up.

Wardhā River.—A river in the Central Provinces, which rises in the Multai plateau of Betūl District, at 21° 50′ N. and 78° 24′ E., about 70 miles north-west of Nāgpur city, and flowing south and south-east, separates the Nāgpur, Wardhā, and Chānda Districts of the Central Provinces from Amraoti and Yeotmāl of Berār and Sirpur Tandūr of the Nizām's Dominions. After a course of 290 miles from its source, the Wardhā meets the WAINGANGĀ at Seonī in Chānda District, and the united stream under the name of the PRĀNHITA flows on to join the GODĀVARI. The bed of the Wardhā, from its source to its junction with the Pengangā at Jugād in the south-east corner of Yeotmāl, is deep and rocky, changing from a swift torrent in the monsoon months to a succession of nearly stagnant pools in the summer. For the last hundred miles of its course below Chānda, it flows in a clear channel broken only by a barrier of rocks commencing above the confluence of the Waingangā and extending into the Prānhita. The project entertained in the years 1866–71 for rendering the Godāvari and Wardhā fit for navigation included the excavation of a channel through this expanse of rock, which was known as the Third Barrier. The scheme proved impracticable; and except that timber is sometimes floated from the Ahiri forests in the monsoon months, no use is now made of the river for navigation. The area drained by the Wardhā includes Wardhā District, with parts of Nāgpur and Chānda in the Central Provinces and the eastern and southern portion of Berār. The principal tributaries of the Wardhā are the Wunnā and Erai from the east, and the Bembla and Pengangā which drain the southern and eastern portions of the plain of Berār. The banks of the river are in several places picturesquely crowned by small temples and tombs, and numerous ruined forts in the background recall the wild period of Marāthā wars and Pindāri raids. Kundalpur (Dewalwāra) on the Berār bank opposite to Wardhā District is believed to represent the site of a buried city, celebrated in the Bhagavad Gīta as the metropolis of the Kingdom of Vidarbhā (Berār). A large religious fair is

held there. At Ballālpur near Chānda are the ruins of a palace of the Gond kings, and a curious temple on an islet in the river which for some months in the year is several feet under water. The Wardhā is crossed by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway at PULGAON.

Prānhita ('helpful to life').—A river in the Central Provinces, formed by the united streams of the WARDHĀ and WAINGANGĀ, whose junction is at Seonī in Chānda District (19° 36′ N. and 79° 49′ E.). From here the river has a course of 72 miles, until it joins the Godāvari above Sironchā. Throughout its length the Prānhita is the western boundary of Chānda District and of the Central Provinces, which it separates from the Nizām's Dominions. Its bed is broad and sandy, with the exception of a long stretch of rock below the confluence at Seonī.

Godāvari River.—A great river of Southern India, which runs across the Deccan from the Western to the Eastern Ghāts; for sanctity, picturesque scenery, and utility to man, surpassed only by the Ganges and the Indus; total length about 900 miles; estimated area of drainage basin, 112,000 square miles. The source of the river is on the side of a hill behind the village of TRIMBAK, in Nāsik District, Bombay Presidency, about 50 miles from the shore of the Indian Ocean. At this spot is an artificial reservoir reached by a flight of 690 steps, into which the water trickles drop by drop from the lips of a carven image, shrouded by a canopy of stone. From first to last the general direction of the river is towards the south-east. It passes by Nāsik town, and then separates Ahmadnagar District from the State of Hyderābād, its total course in the Bombay Presidency being about 100 miles. Above Nāsik it flows along a narrow rocky bed, but farther east the banks are lower and more earthy. Fifteen miles below Nāsik it receives on the right the Dārna from the hills of Igatpuri, and 17 miles farther down, on the left, the Kādva from Dindori. At the latter confluence, at Nander, the stream is dammed for irrigation. Near Nevāsa it receives on the right bank the combined waters of the Pravara and the Mulā, which rise in the hills of Akola, near Harischandragarh.

Course in the Bombay Presidency.

After passing the old town of PAITHAN on its left bank, the Godāvari now runs for a length of about 176 miles right across the Hyderābād State, receiving on its left bank the Pūrna, which flows in near Kararkher in Parbhani District, and on the right the Mānjra near Kondalwādi in Nander, while near Dharmsāgar in the Chinnūr *tāluk* of Adilābād District it

In Hyderābād and the Central Provinces.

receives, again on the right, the Māner. Below Sironchā it is joined by the PRĀNHITA, conveying the united waters of the WARDHĀ and WAINGANGĀ; and from this point it takes a marked south-easterly bend, and for about 100 miles divides Chānda District and the Bastar Feudatory State of the Central Provinces from the Karīmnagar and Warangal Districts of Hyderābād. Thirty miles below the confluence of the Prānhita, the Godāvari receives the Indrāvati river from Bastar State and lower down the Tāl. The bed of the Godāvari where it adjoins the Central Provinces is broad and sandy, from one to two miles in width, and broken by rocks at only two points, called the First and Second Barriers, each about 15 miles long. In 1854 it was proposed to remove these barriers, and a third one on the Prānhita, with the object of making a waterway from the cotton-growing Districts of Nāgpur and Wardhā to the sea; but in 1871, after very considerable sums had been expended, the project was finally abandoned as impracticable. One of the dams erected in connexion with this project still stands, with its locks and canal, at Dummagudem in the north of the Godāvari District of Madras. Although the Godāvari only skirts the Central Provinces, it is one of the most important rivers in their drainage system, as it receives through the Wardhā and Waingangā the waters of a portion of the Sātpurā plateau and of the whole of the Nāgpur plain.

In the Madras Presidency.

Some distance below Sironchā the Godāvari leaves the Central Provinces behind, and for a while forms the boundary between the Godāvari District of the Madras Presidency and the Hyderābād State; and in this part of its course it is joined on the left bank by a considerable tributary, the Sabarī. Thence it falls to the sea through the centre of the old Godāvari District, which has recently been divided, mainly by the course of the river, into the two Districts of Godāvari and Kistna. At the beginning of its course along Madras territory, the river flows placidly through a flat and somewhat monotonous country, but shortly afterwards it begins to force its way through the Eastern Ghāts and a sudden change takes place. The banks become wild and mountainous, the stream contracts, and at length the whole body of the river pours through a narrow and very deep passage known as 'the Gorge,' on either side of which the picturesque wooded slopes of the hills rise almost sheer from the dark water. Once through the hills, the river again opens out and forms a series of broad reaches dotted with low alluvial islands (*lankas*), which are famous for the tobacco they produce. The current here is nowhere rapid.

At Rājahmundry, where the river is crossed by the East Coast line of the Madras Railway on a bridge more than 1½ miles in length, it varies from 4 to 11 feet a second. In floods, however, the Godāvari brings down an enormous volume of water, and embankments on both of its banks are necessary to prevent it from inundating the surrounding country.

A few miles below Rājahmundry the river divides into two main streams, the Gautami Godāvari on the east and the Vasishta Godāvari on the west, which run down to the sea through a wide alluvial delta formed in the course of ages by the masses of silt which the river has here deposited. It is in this delta that the waters of the river are first utilized on any considerable scale for irrigation. At Dowlaishweram, above the bifurcation, a great 'anicut' or dam has been thrown across the stream, and from this the whole delta area has been irrigated. *See* GODĀVARI CANALS.

The Godāvari is navigable for small boats throughout the Godāvari District. Vessels get round the anicut by means of the main canals, of which nearly 500 miles are also navigable, and which connect with the navigable canals of the Kistna delta to the south. Above the anicut there are several steamboats belonging to Government; but, as already observed, the attempts to utilize the Upper Godāvari as an important waterway have proved a failure.

The coast of the Godāvari delta was the scene of some of the earliest settlements of Europeans in India—the Dutch, the English, and the French having all established factories there. The channels of the river which led to these have now greatly silted up. The little French settlement of YANAM still remains, but the others—Bandamūrlanka, Injaram, Madapollam, and Pālakollu—now retain none of their former importance.

Sacred character of the river.

The peculiar sacredness of the Godāvari is said to have been revealed by Rāma himself to the *rishi* Gautama. The river is sometimes called Godā, and the sacred character especially attaches to the Gautami mouth. According to popular legend, it proceeds from the same source as the Ganges, by an underground passage; and this identity is preserved in the familiar name of Vriddha-Gangā. But every part of its course is holy ground, and to bathe in its waters will wash away the blackest sin. The great bathing festival, called *pushkaram*, celebrated in different years on the most sacred rivers of India, is held every twelfth year on the banks of the Godāvari at Rājahmundry. The spots most frequented by pilgrims are the source at Trimbak; the town of Bhadrāchalam on the left

bank, about 100 miles above Rājahmundry, where stands an ancient temple of Rāmachandra, surrounded by twenty-four smaller pagodas; Rājahmundry itself; and the village of Kotipalli, on the left bank of the eastern mouth.

Waingangā ('the arrow of water').—A river in the Central Provinces, which rises near the village of Partābpur or Mundāra (21° 57′ N. and 79° 34′ E.), 11 miles from the town of Seonī on the Sātpurā plateau, and flows in a wide half-circle, bending and winding among the spurs of the hills, from the west to the east of Seonī District. Here it is diverted to the south, being joined by the Thānwar river from Mandlā, and forms the boundary of Seonī for some miles until it enters Bālāghāt. The upper valley, at first stony and confined, becomes later an alternation of rich alluvial basins and narrow gorges, until at the eastern border of Seonī the river commences its descent to the lower country, passing over a series of rapids and deep channels, overhung by walls of granite, 200 feet high. The course of the Waingangā during the last six miles before its junction with the Thānwar may perhaps be ranked next to the Bherāghāt gorge of the Narbadā for beauty of river scenery in the Central Provinces. Emerging from the hills, the river flows south and south-west through the rich rice lands of Bālāghāt and Bhandāra Districts, passing the towns of Bālāghāt, Tumsar, Bhandāra, and Paunī, and receiving the waters of numerous affluents. Of these the principal are the Bāgh in Bālāghāt, and the Kanhān, Chūlband, and Gārhvi in Bhandāra. It then flows through Chānda, and after a course of 360 miles joins the Wardhā at Seonī on the south-western border of Chānda District. The river formed by the confluence of the Wardhā and Waingangā is known as the PRĀNHITA and is a tributary of the GODĀVARI.

In Seonī and Bālāghāt Districts the bed of the Waingangā is a series of basalt ridges with deep pools held up behind them, while in the hot season the river shrinks to a narrow stream trickling between the indentations of the ridges. Below Bālāghāt the bed is generally broad and sandy, interspersed with occasional barriers of rock. Its width extends to about 600 yards in Chānda. During the flood season the river is navigable for light canoes from the confluence of the Bāgh as far as Garhchirolī in Chānda, though one or two barriers of rock impede traffic. Timber is floated down it, and grain and vegetables are carried for short distances by boat. No use is made of the river for purposes of irrigation. The drainage area of the Waingangā includes the east of the Nāgpur plain

and also the greater part of the Districts of Seonī and Chhindwāra, whose waters are brought to it by the Pench and Kanhān rivers. It is crossed by the narrow-gauge Sātpurā railway near Keolāri, by the main line of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway near Nawāgaon in Bhandāra, and by a fine stone bridge at Chhapāra on the Seonī-Jubbulpore road. An annual fair is held at its source at Mundāra.

The curiously winding and circuitous course of the Waingangā through Seonī District is thus accounted for by a Hindu legend. A Rājā in Bhandāra had a talisman, and by placing this in his mouth, he could be transported to Allahābād to bathe in the Ganges. But after he had done this daily for a long time, the Ganges said to him that it was a great labour for him to come every day to Allahābād to bathe in its waters; and that if he filled a bottle with its water and laid it down by his house, a new stream would flow whose water would be that of the Ganges, and bathing in which would confer the same religious efficacy. So the Rājā thanked the river, and joyfully took a bottle of the water. But on his way home, while stopping to rest at Partābpur, the present source of the Waingangā, he inadvertently laid the bottle on the ground. Instantly a stream issued forth from it and began to flow. The dismayed Rājā then besought the river, saying that this place was far from his home, and he would not be able to come there and bathe. So the river, pitying him, changed its course, and flowed north, east, and south in a wide half-circle, until it passed through Bhandāra by the Rājā's house.

Mahānadī ('the great river').—A large river in the Central Provinces and Bengal, with a total course of 550 miles, about half of which lies within the Central Provinces. The drainage area of the Mahānadī is estimated at 43,800 square miles, of which about 27,000 square miles are in the Central Provinces. Owing to the rapidity of its current, its maximum discharge in flood time near its mouth is calculated to be nearly 2 million cubic feet a second, or as great as that of the Ganges; in the dry season, however, the discharge dwindles to 1,125 cubic feet a second, while the least discharge of the Ganges is 45,000 cubic feet. During eight months of the year the river is nothing more than a narrow and shallow channel winding through a vast expanse of sand.

It rises in an insignificant pool, a few miles from the village of Sihāwa in the extreme south-east of Raipur District (20° 9′ N. and 81° 58′ E.). In the first part of its course it flows to the north, and drains the eastern portion of Raipur, its valley

during the first 50 miles being not more than 500 or 600 yards broad. A little above Seorīnārāyan, on entering Bilāspur District, it receives the waters of its first great affluent the Seonāth, which in Raipur District is a more important river than the Mahānadī itself. It flows in an easterly direction through Bilāspur, its principal tributaries being the Jonk and Hasdo. It then enters Sambalpur, and turning south at the town of Padampur flows south and south-east through Sambalpur District. Its affluents here are the Ib, Ong, and Tel, and numerous minor streams. In Sambalpur it has already become a river of the first magnitude with a width of more than a mile in flood time, when it pours down a sheet of muddy water overflowing its submerged banks, carrying with it the boughs and trunks of trees, and occasionally the corpses of men and animals which it has swept away. From Sambalpur a magnificent view is obtained for several miles up and down the river, the breadth being almost doubled at the centre of a large curve below the town. The Mahānadī subsequently forms the northern boundary of the State of Baud in Orissa, and forces its tortuous way through the Orissa Tributary States, between ridges and ledges, in a series of rapids, until it reaches Dholpur. Boats shoot these rapids at a great pace, and on their return journey are dragged up from the bank with immense labour. During the rainy season the water covers the rocks and suffices to float down huge rafts of timber. At Dholpur the rapids end, and the river rolls its unrestrained waters straight towards the outermost line of the Eastern Ghāts. This mountain line is pierced by a gorge 40 miles in length, overlooked by hills and shaded by forests on either side. The Mahānadī finally leaves the Tributary States, and pours down upon the Orissa delta from between two hills a mile apart at Narāj, about 7 miles west of the city of Cuttack. It traverses Cuttack District from west to east, and throwing off numerous branches falls into the Bay of Bengal, by several channels, near False Point, in 20° 18′ N. and 86° 43′ E.

On the right or south bank, soon after entering Cuttack District, it gives off a large stream, the Kātjurī, the city of Cuttack being built upon the spit which separates the two rivers. The Kātjurī immediately divides into two, of which the southern branch, under the name of the Koyākhai, passes into Purī District, and shortly afterwards throws off the Suruā, which reunites with the parent stream after a course of a few miles. A little lower down the Kātjurī throws off two minor distributaries from its right bank, the Great and Little Devī,

which unite after a southerly course of about 20 miles; and, under the name of the Devī, the combined stream passes into Purī District, and falls into the Bay of Bengal, a few miles below the southern boundary of Cuttack. The Kātjurī ultimately falls into the Bay of Bengal under the name of the Jotdār. The other important southern distributary of the Mahānadī is the Paikā, which branches off from the parent stream 10 miles below Cuttack city, and rejoins it after a course of about 12 miles. It again branches off from the northern bank, and running in a loop finally joins the Mahānadī at Tikri, opposite Tāldanda. The offshoots from the left or north bank of the Mahānadī are the Birūpā and the Chitartala. The Birūpā takes off opposite the city of Cuttack, and, after flowing in a north-easterly direction for about 15 miles, throws off the Gengutī from its left bank. This stream, after receiving the waters of the Kelo, again falls into the Birūpā. The latter river afterwards joins the BRĀHMANĪ, and its waters ultimately find their way into the Bay of Bengal by the Dhāmra estuary. The Chitartala branch leaves the parent stream about 10 miles below the Birūpā mouth, and soon bifurcates into the Chitartala and the Nūn. These streams unite, after a course of about 20 miles, and, under the name of the Nūn, the united waters fall into the Mahānadī estuary a few miles from the coast, and so into the Bay of Bengal.

In the upper parts of its course the bed of the Mahānadī is open and sandy, with banks usually low, bare, and unattractive. After entering Sambalpur its course is broken in several places by rocks through which the river forms rapids, dangerous to navigation. Boats can, however, ascend the Mahānadī from its mouth as far as Arang in Raipur District, about 120 miles from its source. Before the construction of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway the Mahānadī was the main outlet for the produce of Sambalpur District, which was carried in boats to Cuttack, salt, cloth and other commodities being brought back in exchange. The through traffic has now, however, been superseded by the railway, and there remains only a small amount of local trade between Sambalpur and Sonpur.

No use has hitherto been made of the waters of the Mahānadī for irrigation in the Central Provinces, but a project for a canal in Raipur District is under consideration. Efforts have been made to husband and utilize the vast water-supply thrown down on the Orissa delta; and an elaborate system of canals, known as the ORISSA CANALS, has been constructed to regulate the water-supply for irrigation, and to utilize it for

navigation and commerce. Large sums have also been spent in embankments to protect the delta from inundation by the floods which pour down the Mahānadī and its distributaries. A pontoon bridge is constructed across it in the dry season at Sambalpur, and the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway crosses by a bridge at Cuttack.

Historical associations.

Gondwāna.—A name given by the Muhammadans to a tract of country now in the Central Provinces and Central India. Abul Fazl describes Gondwāna or Garhā Katankā as bounded on the east by Ratanpur, a dependency of Jhārkhand or Chotā Nāgpur, and on the west by Mālwā, while Pannā lay north of it, and the Deccan south. This description corresponds fairly closely with the position of the SĀTPURĀ plateau, as the Chhattīsgarh plain on the east belonged to the Ratanpur kingdom, incorrectly designated as a dependency of Chotā Nāgpur, while part of the Narbadā valley was included in the old Hindu kingdom of Mālwā. Little or nothing was known of Gondwāna at this time; and indeed as late as 1853 it was stated before the Royal Asiatic Society that 'at present the Gondwāna highlands and jungles comprise such a large tract of unexplored country that they form quite an oasis in our maps.' Gondwāna to the Muhammadans signified the country of the Gonds, the Dravidian tribe at present bearing that name. How they obtained it is a question which has been discussed by General Cunningham [1]. As pointed out by him the Gonds do not call themselves by this name, but commonly by that of Koitūr. He considers that Gond probably comes from Gauda, the classical name of part of the United Provinces and Bengal. A Benares inscription relating to one of the Chedi kings of Tripura or Tewar (near Jubbulpore) states that he was of the Haihaya tribe, who lived on the banks of the Narbadā, in the district of the western Gauda in the province of Mālwā. Three or four other inscriptions also refer to the kings of Gauda in the same locality. The hypothesis can scarcely be considered as more than speculative; but, if correct, it shows that the name Gond has simply a local signification, the Gonds being the inhabitants of western Gauda, and the name being derived from the same source as that of the Gaur Brāhmans and Rājputs.

The Gonds formerly a ruling race.

More than $2\frac{1}{4}$ millions of Gonds were enumerated at the Census of 1901, of whom nearly 2 millions belong to the Central Provinces, and the remainder to Bengal, Madras, and Berār. Large numbers of them live on the Sātpurā plateau,

[1] *Records of the Archaeological Survey*, vol. ix, p. 150.

the Chotā Nāgpur plateau, and the hills of Bastar between the Mahānadī and Godāvari, while they are less numerous on the Vindhyan Hills. The Gonds are among the most important of all the Dravidian tribes, and were formerly a ruling race, the greater part of the Central Provinces having been held by three or four Gond dynasties from about the fourteenth to the eighteenth century. Such accounts of them as remain, even allowing for much exaggeration, indicate the attainment of a surprising degree of civilization and prosperity. So far back as the fifteenth century we read in Firishta that the king of Kherlā sumptuously entertained Ahmad Shāh Walī, the Bahmani Sultān, and made him rich offerings, among which were many diamonds, rubies, and pearls. Under the Garhā-Mandlā dynasty the revenues of the Mandlā district are said to have amounted to ten lakhs of rupees. When the castle of Chaurāgarh was sacked by one of Akbar's generals in 1564, the booty found, according to Firishta, comprised, independently of jewels, images of gold and silver and other valuables, no fewer than a hundred jars of gold coin, and a thousand elephants. Of the Chānda rulers the Settlement officer who has recorded their history wrote that 'they left, if we forget the last few years, a well-governed and contented kingdom, adorned with admirable works of engineering skill, and prosperous to a point which no after-time has reached.'

Oppression of the Marāthās.

These States were subverted by the Marāthās in the eighteenth century, and the Gonds were driven to take refuge in the inaccessible highlands, where the Marāthās continued to pillage and harass them, until they obtained an acknowledgement of their supremacy and the promise of an annual tribute. Under such treatment the hill Gonds soon lost every vestige of civilization, and became the cruel treacherous savages depicted by travellers of this period, when they regularly plundered and murdered stragglers and small parties passing through their hills, while from their strongholds, built on the most inacessible spurs of the Sātpurās, they would make a dash into the rich plains of Berār or the Narbadā valley, and after looting and killing all night, return straight across country to their jungle fortresses, guided by the light of a bonfire on some commanding peak. With the pacification of the country and the introduction of a strong and equable system of government by the British, these wild marauders soon settled down and became the timid and inoffensive labourers which they now are.

Internal structure

Owing to their numbers and wide distribution the internal structure of the Gond tribe is somewhat complex. In Chānda

of the tribe.

and Bastar especially are found a number of sub-tribes, as the Mārias, Parjās, and Koyās, of whom it may at least be surmised that the name of Gond, as applied to them, has rather a local than a tribal signification, and that they are as distinctly separate tribes as the other branches of the Dravidian stock. A number of occupational groups have also come into existence, which are endogamous, and sometimes occupy a lower position in the social scale than the Gonds proper. Such are the Pardhāns or bards and minstrels, the Ojhās or soothsayers, Agariās or iron-workers, Gowāris or graziers, Naiks or those who were formerly soldiers, and Koilābhūtis or dancers and prostitutes. The Pardhāns, Ojhās, and Koilābhūtis will eat from a proper Gond's hand, but a Gond will not eat with them. These professional groups, though included among Gonds by common usage, form practically separate castes. The tribe proper has two main divisions: the Rāj Gonds, who form the aristocracy, and the Dhūr, or 'dust' Gonds, the people. The latter are also called by the Hindus Rāvanvansis or descendants of the demon Rāvana, who was destroyed by Rāma. The Rāj Gonds, who include the majority of the *zamīndārs*, may roughly be taken to be the descendants of Gond landed proprietors who have been formed into a separate subdivision and admitted to Hinduism with the status of a cultivating caste, Brāhmans taking water from them. The elevation is justified by the theory that they have intermarried with Rājputs, but this has probably occurred only in a few isolated instances. Some Rāj Gonds wear the sacred thread, and outdo Brāhmans in their purificatory observances, even having the wood which is to cook their food washed before it is burnt. But many of them are obliged once in four or five years to visit their god Būra Deo, and to place cow's flesh to their lips wrapped in a cloth, lest evil should befall their house. The Khatulhā Gonds, found principally in the north, also have a somewhat higher status than the ordinary Gonds, and appear to have belonged to the old Khatolā State in Bundelkhand.

Exogamous divisions.

The exogamous divisions of the Gonds are somewhat complicated. The primary classification is according to the number of gods worshipped. The worshippers of 7, 6, 5, and 4 gods form different divisions, within which marriage is prohibited; that is, worshippers of the same number of gods may not intermarry. Each division also has a totem—that of the 7-god worshippers being a porcupine, of the 6-god worshippers a tiger, of the 5-god worshippers a crane, and of those of 4 gods a tortoise. But each of these divisions is further split up into

a number of totemistic septs, and members of a sept may not marry those of a sept having the same totem in another division though worshipping a different number of gods. In many cases also particular septs with different totems in different divisions may not intermarry, the explanation being that a relationship exists between these septs. The whole system is somewhat confused, and the rules are indefinite, while the divisions according to numbers of gods worshipped appear to be absent in the northern Districts of the Central Provinces.

Marriage customs.

The marriage ceremony is performed in several ways. The Rāj Gonds have adopted the Hindu ceremonial. On the other hand, in Bastar and Chānda, the primitive form of marriage by capture is still in vogue, though the procedure is now merely symbolical. The most distinctive feature of a Gond wedding is that the procession usually starts from the bride's house and the ceremony is performed at that of the bridegroom, in contradistinction to the Hindu practice. When a Gond wishes to marry his children he first looks to his sister's children, whom he considers himself to be entitled to demand for his own, such a marriage being called 'bringing back the milk.' Among the poorest classes the expectant bridegroom serves the bride's father for a period varying from three to seven years, at the end of which the marriage is celebrated at the latter's expense. In Khairāgarh the bridal pair are placed in two pans of a balance and covered with blankets. The caste priest lifts up the bridegroom's pan and the girl's relatives the other, and they walk round with them seven times, touching the marriage-post at each turn. After this they are taken outside the village without being allowed to see each other. They are placed standing at a little distance with a screen between them, and liquor is spilt on the ground to make a line from one to the other. After a time the bridegroom lifts up the screen, rushes on the bride, gives her a blow on the back, and puts the ring on her finger, at the same time making a noise in imitation of the cry of a goat. All the men then rush indiscriminately upon the women, making the same noise, and indulge in bacchanalian orgies, not sparing their own relations. The Māria Gonds consider the consent of the girl to be an essential preliminary to the marriage. She gives it before a council of elders, and if necessary is allowed time to make up her mind. For the marriage ceremony the couple are seated side by side under a green shed, and water is poured on them through the shed in imitation of the fertilizing action of

rain. Some elder of the village lays his hands on them, and the wedding is over. In the Māria villages, as in Chhattīsgarh, there are *gotalghars*, or two houses or barracks in which all the youths and maidens respectively of the village sleep. They sing and dance and drink liquor till midnight, and are then supposed to separate, and each sex to retire to its own house. Marriage is adult, and divorce and widow-marriage are freely allowed.

Disposal of the dead.

The funeral ceremonies of the Gonds are interesting. The corpse is usually buried with its feet to the south; the higher classes burn their dead, this honour being particularly reserved for old men on account of the expense involved in cremation. Formerly the dead were buried in the houses in which they died, but this practice has now ceased. On the fifth day after death the ceremony of bringing back the soul is performed. The relations go to the river-side and call aloud the name of the dead person, and then enter the river, catch a fish or an insect, and taking it home, place it among the sainted dead of the family, believing that the spirit of the dead person has in this manner been brought back to the house. In some cases it is eaten, in the belief that it will thus be born again as a child. The good souls are quickly appeased, and veneration for them is confined to their descendants. But the bad ones excite a wider interest because their evil influences may extend to others. A similar fear attaches to the spirits of persons who have died a violent or unnatural death.

Religion

The religion of the Gond is simply animistic. He deifies ancestors, who are represented by small pebbles kept in a basket in the holiest part of the house, that is, the kitchen, where he regularly worships them at appointed intervals. His greatest god is Būra Deo; but his pantheon includes many others, some being Hindu gods, and others animals or implements to which Hindu names have been attached. Among them may be mentioned Bhīmsen, one of the Pāndava brothers; Pharsī Pen, the battle-axe god; Ghangrā, the bell on a bullock's neck; Chawar, the cow's tail; Bāgh Deo, the tiger; Dūlha Deo, a young bridegroom who was carried off by a tiger; Pālo, the cloth covering for spear-heads; and others. In Chhindwāra are found *deo khalās* or 'gods' threshing-floors,' at which collections of the gods reside, and where gatherings are held for worship several times a year.

Occupation, character, and appearance.

The Gonds are principally engaged in agriculture, and the majority of them are farm servants and labourers. The more civilized are also police constables and *chaprāsis*, and the Mohpāni coal-miners are mainly Gonds. They work well, but

like the other forest tribes are improvident and lazy when they have got enough for their immediate wants. 'A Gond considers himself a king if he has a pot of grain in his house,' says a proverb. The Gonds are of small stature and dark in colour. Their bodies are well proportioned, but their features are ugly, with a round head, distended nostrils, a wide mouth and thick lips, straight black hair, and scanty beard and moustache. The Mārias are taller and have more aquiline features than the other tribes.

About half of the Gonds in the Central Provinces speak a broken Hindī, while the remainder retain their own Dravidian language, popularly known as Gondī. This has a common ancestor with Tamil and Kanarese, but little immediate connexion with its neighbour Telugu. Gondī has no literature and no character of its own; but the Gospels and the Book of Genesis have been translated into it, and several grammatical sketches and vocabularies compiled. Language.

Kosala (from *Kushala*, 'happy').—Two tracts of this name are known in Hindu literature. That north of the Vindhyas corresponded roughly to Oudh. In the Rāmāyana it is the country of Dasaratha and Rāma, with its capital at Ajodhyā, and it then extended to the Ganges. It was part of the holy land of Buddhism, and in Buddhist literature kings of Kosala also ruled over Kapilavastu. Srāvasti, the site of which is disputed, was the capital of Uttara Kosala, the northern portion over which Lava, son of Rāma, ruled after his father's death. Southern or Great Kosala (Dakshina or Mahā Kosala), which fell to Kusa, the other son of Rāma, lay south of the Vindhyas. In the seventh century Hiuen Tsiang describes it as bounded by Ujjain on the north, Mahārāshtra on the west, Orissa on the east, and Andhra and Kalinga on the south. It thus lay in Chhattīsgarh about the upper valley of the MAHĀNADĪ and its tributaries, from Amarkantak on the north to Kānker on the south, and may at times have extended west into Mandlā and Bālāghāt Districts, and east into Sambalpur. From about the year 1000 the tract was absorbed in a new kingdom called Chedi ('eastern').

[For Northern Kosala, see Lassen, *Ind. Alt.*, vol. i, p. 129, and authorities quoted there; Rhys Davids' *Buddhist India*, passim. For Southern Kosala, see Cunningham, *Archaeological Survey Reports*, vol. xvii, p. 68, and map; and *Coins of Mediaeval India*, p. 73.]

JUBBULPORE DIVISION

Jubbulpore Division (*Jabalpur*).—Northern Division of the Central Provinces, extending from 21° 36′ to 24° 27′ N. and from 78° 4′ to 81° 45′ E., with an area of 18,950 square miles. The head-quarters of the Commissioner are at JUBBULPORE CITY. The Division contains five Districts, as shown below :—

District.	Area in square miles.*	Population in 1901.*	Land revenue and cesses (1903-4), in thousands of rupees.
Saugor . . .	3,962	469,479	5,52
Damoh . . .	2,816	285,326	3,89
Jubbulpore . .	3,912	680,585	9,67
Mandlā . . .	5,054	318,400	1,97
Seonī . . .	3,206	327,709	3,13
Total	18,950	2,081,499	24,18

* The District figures of area and population have been adjusted to allow for some small transfers of territory which have taken place since the Census of 1901.

Of these, Saugor and Damoh and the Murwāra *tahsīl* of Jubbulpore lie on the Vindhyan plateau to the north. The southern part of Jubbulpore is situated at the head of the narrow valley through which the Narbadā river flows between the Vindhyan and Sātpurā ranges : while Seonī and Mandlā form part of the Sātpurā plateau to the south. The Division therefore consists generally of hilly country, lying at a considerable elevation and enjoying a comparatively temperate climate. In 1881 the population of the Division was 2,201,573, which increased in 1891 to 2,375,610 or by 8 per cent. The increase was considerably less than the average for the Province, the decade having been an unhealthy one, especially in Saugor and Damoh. In 1901 the population was 2,081,916, a decrease of 12 per cent. on the figures of 1891. Since the Census a small transfer of territory has taken place, and the adjusted population is 2,081,499. All Districts of the Division suffered severely from famine during the decade. In 1901 Hindus formed 74 per cent. of the total and Animists 20 per cent. There were 89,731 Musalmāns, 29,918 Jains, and 5,878 Christians, of whom 2,706 were Europeans and Eurasians. The density of population is 110 persons per square mile,

as compared with 112 for all British Districts of the Province. The Division contains 11 towns and 8,561 inhabited villages, but JUBBULPORE CITY (90,316) and SAUGOR (42,330) are the only towns with a population of more than 20,000. Thirteen miles from Jubbulpore, at a gorge overhanging the Narbadā river, are the well-known Marble Rocks.

Saugor District (*Sāgar*). — District of the Jubbulpore Division in the extreme north-west of the Central Provinces, lying between 23° 9′ and 24° 27′ N. and 78° 4′ and 79° 22′ E., with an area of 3,962 square miles. It forms with Damoh an extension of the great Mālwā plateau, and consists of a flat open black soil tract about 1,000 feet above the level of the Narbadā valley, from which it is separated by the steep escarpment of the Vindhyan Hills. It is bounded on the north by the Jhānsi District of the United Provinces and by the Native States of Pannā, Bijāwar, and Charkhārī; on the east by Pannā and Damoh District; on the south by Narsinghpur District and the Native State of Bhopāl; and on the west by the States of Bhopāl and Gwalior. The District is narrowest at its south-eastern corner, and slopes towards the north-east, gradually extending in width until it culminates in the heights overlooking the Bundelkhand plain. The country is generally undulating, with numerous isolated hills. The most open parts are the plain forming the Khurai *tahsīl* on the north-west, and that which consists of the Garhākotā, Rehlī, and Deorī *parganas* on the south-east. East of the Khurai *tahsīl*, which is separated from Saugor and Bandā by a low range of hills, the character of the country is very broken, low flat-topped hills rising from the plain in all directions, some covered with trees, others stony and barren. On the south-east and north-east of the District lie thick belts of forest. The drainage of the country is almost entirely to the north and east, the watershed of the Narbadā commencing only from the summit of the range immediately overlooking it. The principal rivers are the SONĀR, the Bewas, the DHASĀN, the Bīna, and the BETWĀ. Of these the Sonār, Bewas, and Dhasān flow from south-west to north-east, the course of the last named being more northerly than that of the other two. The Bīna flows through the extreme west of the District, and the Betwā marks for some distance the border separating the northern portion of the Khurai *tahsīl* from the State of Gwalior. Two small streams, the Biranj and Sindhor, take their rise in the Deorī *pargana* of the Rehlī *tahsīl* and flow south to the Narbadā.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

The greater part of the District is covered by the Deccan

Geology.

trap; but there are two great inliers of Vindhyan sandstone, one to the north running down nearly as far as Saugor, and the other to the east extending from near Garhākotā to beyond Surkhī. To the east or south-east of Saugor the infra-trappean or Lameta limestone is largely developed. Calcareous inter-trappean bands with fossilized shells and plants also occur largely near Saugor.

Botany. The Vindhyan Hills are generally poorly wooded. Saugor contains some almost pure teak forest in the west near Jaisinghnagar and Rāhatgarh, and teak mixed with other species elsewhere. Sandal-wood is found in small areas, and bamboos occupy the slopes of most of the hills. The bamboo is fairly well reproduced by seed, but the forests are full of dead trees, and are in poor condition for the most part. Belts of *chiulā* or *palās* (*Butea frondosa*) are found in the rich black soil of the open plateaux, and of plains at the foot of the hills, such as those near Saugor. The cultivated portions of the District are marked by the presence near villages of scattered trees or groves of mango, tamarind, *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*), and *pīpal*.

Fauna. Among wild animals, *sāmbar*, *nīlgai*, and spotted deer are numerous, and hog are still more common. Four-horned deer, barking-deer, and mouse deer are occasionally met with. Herds of antelope are found all over the open country, especially in the Khurai *tahsīl*. Game birds, such as peafowl, spur-fowl, sand-grouse, partridges, and green pigeon, are fairly numerous; but water-fowl are not plentiful owing to the absence of tanks. Mahseer of small size are numerous in most of the rivers, and *murrel* (*Ophiocephalus striatus*) are caught in every tank.

Climate and rainfall. The climate of the District is pleasant considering the latitude. The minimum temperature is about 41° in the cold season, and the maximum summer heat about 112°. The District is healthy during the greater part of the year. The annual rainfall averages 47 inches. Failures of crops appear on the whole to have been caused in equal degree by deficiency and by excess of rainfall.

History. The early history of Saugor is mainly a matter of tradition. The old capital, Garhpahrā, 7 miles north of the present city, is supposed to have been founded by a Gond dynasty. The Gonds were succeeded by a tribe of Ahīrs called the Faulādia, to whom is attributed the foundation of the fort at Rehlī. Some Ahīr landowners still claim to be their descendants and bear the title of Rao. About 1023 the Ahīrs were supplanted

by one Nihālshā, a Rājput of Jālaun, who took possession of Saugor and the surrounding country. Nihālshā's descendants retained possession for about 600 years, but are said to have been defeated by the Chandels of Mahobā and subjected to tribute. The two Banāphar warriors of the Chandel Rājās, Alhā and Udal, are popular heroes, and their fifty-two battles are celebrated in song. Alhā is still supposed to live in the forests of Orchhā, and nightly to kindle the lamp in a temple of Devī on a hill in the forest. Saugor itself was founded in 1660 by Udan Shā, a Dāngi chief, said to be one of Nihālshā's descendants, who built a small fort on the site of the present one and settled the village of Parkotā, which is now part of the town. The grandson of Udan Shā, Prithwīpat, a man of weak intellect, was dispossessed by Chhatarsāl, the famous Bundelā Rājā. He was restored by the Rājā of Jaipur, but was again ousted by the Muhammadan chief of Kurwai, and retired to Bilehrā, which with four other villages is still held free of revenue by his descendants. In 1735 Saugor was taken by a nephew of Bājī Rao, the Marāthā Peshwā, who left his lieutenant, Govind Rao Pandit, in charge of the conquered territory. Govind Rao paid great attention to the improvement of the town and surrounding country. The fort of Saugor as it now stands was built by him, and the town grew into a city under his administration and became the capital of this part of the country. He was killed in 1761 at the battle of Pānīpat, and the Peshwā gave Saugor and the surrounding country revenue-free to his descendants, who continued to hold possession until it was ceded to the British. During their rule the city was sacked three times, twice by Amīr Khān, Pindāri, and once by Sindhia after a long siege in 1814. In 1818 Saugor was ceded to the British by the Peshwā, and became part of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, which were for a time attached to the North-Western Provinces. In March, 1842, occurred what is known as the Bundelā insurrection. Two Bundelā landholders, who had been served with civil court decrees, rose in rebellion and sacked several towns. They were joined by a Gond chief, and disaffection extended into the adjoining District of Narsinghpur. In the following year the revolt was put down, but the District had suffered severely and the land revenue was realized with difficulty for several years.

In 1857 the garrison of Saugor consisted of two regiments of native infantry and one of cavalry, with a few European gunners. Shortly after the commencement of the Mutiny the

European residents moved into the fort. The regiments remained in their lines for a short time, when the 42nd and the 3rd irregular cavalry mutinied, the 31st regiment remaining faithful. The two mutinous regiments moved off towards Shāhgarh, a Native State to the north; the Rājās of Shāhgarh and Bānpur then entered the District and took possession of the greater part of it. At the same time the Nawāb of Garhī Amāpāni, a place now in Bhopāl, occupied Rāhatgarh. The whole District was thus in the hands of the rebels, the Europeans holding only the town and fort of Saugor. This state of things continued for about eight months, during which time three indecisive engagements were fought. In February, 1858, Sir Hugh Rose arrived at Rāhatgarh with the Central India Field Force, defeated the rebels, and took the fort. Thence he passed on to Barodiā Naunagar, about 10 miles from Rāhatgarh, where he met and defeated the troops of the Rājā of Bānpur, and then came into Saugor. All the rebels about Rāhatgarh and Khurai now fled. Passing through Saugor Sir Hugh Rose went on to Garhākotā, where he met and defeated the Rājā of Shāhgarh's troops, and took the fort, in which the rebels had left a large quantity of treasure and property of all kinds. He then came back to Saugor and marched towards Jhānsi, meeting the remainder of the Shāhgarh Rājā's troops at Madanpur and defeating them with great slaughter. By the beginning of March, 1858, a regular administration was restored, and the police and revenue offices re-established. The dominions of the Shāhgarh Rājā were confiscated, and a part of them was added to Saugor District.

Archaeology. Dhāmoni, 29 miles north of Saugor, contains a large fort almost in ruins and surrounded by jungle. At Khimlāsa, 42 miles north-west of Saugor, and the old head-quarters of the Khurai *tahsīl*, are situated a fort and a Muhammadan tomb, the walls of the latter being of perforated screen-work. Of the numerous other forts in the District, the largest is that at Rāhatgarh, 25 miles west of Saugor, which is ascribed to the Muhammadan rulers of Bhopāl. The outer walls consist of 26 enormous round towers, some of which were used as dwellings, connected by curtain walls and enclosing a space of 66 acres. Within is a palace called the Bādal Mahal or 'cloud palace' from its great height. There are also forts at Rehlī, GARHĀKOTĀ, KHURAI, DEORĪ, and Jaisinghnagar, with masonry walls protected by massive towers; but these are now for the most part in ruins.

The people. At the Census of 1901, Saugor contained 5 towns—SAUGOR,

GARHĀKOTĀ, ETĀWA, KHURAI, and DEORĪ—and 1,924 villages. The population at the last three enumerations has been as follows: (1881) 564,950; (1891) 591,743; (1901) 471,046. Both in 1881 and 1891 the rate of increase was far below that of the Province as a whole, owing to a long succession of partially unfavourable seasons, which retarded the natural increase of population and also caused a certain amount of emigration to Central India. Between 1891 and 1901 Saugor with Damoh suffered from a more disastrous succession of failures of crops than any other part of the Province. In 1902 a tract of 11 villages with some Government forest was transferred from Saugor to Narsinghpur, and the corrected totals of area and population are 3,962 square miles and 469,479 persons. The statistics of population in 1901 given below have been adjusted on account of this transfer:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Saugor	1,064	1	525	166,399	156	−19.8	9,043
Khurai	940	2	470	93,788	100	−25.6	3,729
Rehlī	1,254	2	660	136,463	109	−19.3	4,481
Bandā	704	..	269	72,829	103	−16.5	1,975
District total	3,962	5	1,924	469,479	118	−20.4	19,228

About 87 per cent. of the population are Hindus, and 4 per cent. Animists, the latter proportion being very low in comparison with that for the Province as a whole. Muhammadans number 23,215, or 5 per cent. of the population, but 13,000 of these live in towns. There are more than 15,000 Jains in the District, or nearly a third of the total number in the Province. The language of Saugor is the Bundelī dialect of Western Hindī, which is spoken by almost the whole population. Only 3,800 persons speak Urdū and 6,500 Marāthī. It is noticeable that the Marāthī spoken in Saugor is the pure form of the language belonging to Poona, and not the Nāgpur dialect. The forest tribes have entirely abandoned their own languages.

Their castes and occupations.

The principal landholding castes in the District are Brāhmans, Dāngis, Lodīs, Kurmīs, and Bundelā Rājputs. Brāhmans (41,000), who constitute nearly 9 per cent. of the population, have come from the north and west of India. The north country Brāhmans have been in the District longest, and

the Marāthās immigrated at the time when it came under their rule. The Dāngis (21,000) were formerly a dominant caste, and Saugor was sometimes called Dāngīwāra after them. They are principally *mālguzārs* (landholders) and tenants, and rarely labourers. Lodhīs (39,000) constitute 8 per cent. of the population. They had the reputation of being quarrelsome and fond of display, but are now losing these characteristics. Kurmīs (22,000) are quiet and industrious cultivators, and averse to litigation. The Bundelā Rājputs were a renowned free-booting tribe. They are proud and penurious to the last degree, and quick to resent the smallest slight. Even now it is said that no Baniā dare go past a Bundelā's house without getting down from his pony and folding up his umbrella. There are only one or two Muhammadan landowners of any importance. Of the forest tribes Gonds number 22,000, or about 4½ per cent. of the population, and Savaras 13,000, or rather less than 3 per cent. The Gond Rājā of Pitehrā was formerly a feudatory of the Mandlā dynasty, holding a considerable portion of the south of the District. Both Gonds and Savaras in this District are comparatively civilized, and have partially adopted Hindu usages. About 65 per cent. of the total population are supported by agriculture.

Christian missions.

Christians number 1,357, of whom 665 are Roman Catholics, 230 Lutherans, and 443 belong to the Church of England. Of the total number 768 are natives. There are Swedish Lutheran and Roman Catholic missions, of which the former is located at Saugor and Khurai and the latter at Shyāmpurā. Etāwa contains a station of the Christian Mission, a body with no sectarian tenets.

General agricultural conditions.

The prevalent soil is a dark coloured loam of varying depth, which has been formed partly by lacustrine deposit and partly by the disintegration of the trap rock, the loose particles of which are washed off the hills into the depressions below. This soil is locally known as *mund*, and is much prized because it is easily workable, and not so favourable to the growth of rank grass as the more clayey soils found in other parts. It covers 56 per cent. of the area under cultivation. *Kābar*, or good black soil, covers 2 per cent., and *raiyān*, or thin black soil, 10 per cent. of the area under cultivation. The other soils are inferior and unsuitable for wheat. The soil of the Khurai *tahsīl* contains a large admixture of clay, and hence is somewhat stiffer and more difficult to work than that of Saugor and the open part of Rehlī. The most serious obstacle to cultivation in Saugor District is the coarse *kāns*

grass (*Saccharum spontaneum*); this rapidly invades black soil when left fallow, and, when once it has obtained a hold, covers the whole field with a network of roots, and can scarcely be eradicated by the ordinary country plough. *Kāns* flourishes particularly in the clayey soil of the Khurai *tahsīl*, and during the period of adverse seasons has overrun large areas of fertile land. Attempts are now being made to eradicate it by means of embankments which will keep the fields under water during the rains.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

About $2\frac{1}{2}$ square miles of land taken from Government forests are held on *ryotwāri* tenure; 14 square miles by revenue-free grantees; and the balance on the ordinary proprietary (*mālguzāri*) tenures. The main agricultural statistics for 1903-4 are given below, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Saugor . .	1,064	435	3	437	124
Khurai . .	940	238	1	529	124
Rehlī . .	1,254	443	$\frac{1}{3}$	417	327
Bandā . .	704	227	4	243	180
Total	3,962	1,343	$8\frac{1}{3}$	1,626	755

Formerly the wheat crop far exceeded any other in Saugor District. In 1891-2 the area under wheat was 805 square miles, but it then began to decline owing to a succession of bad seasons, and fell to 153 square miles in 1896-7. There has now been some recovery, and the figures for 1903-4 show 466 square miles under wheat, or 37 per cent. of the cropped area. Gram has been steadily growing in popularity, both because it has a recuperative effect on the soil, and because it is a less expensive crop to cultivate. It occupies 146 square miles, or 12 per cent. of the cropped area. Linseed has been affected by the unfavourable seasons no less than wheat, and now occupies 56 square miles, or $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the cropped area. *Jowār* has in recent years increased greatly in popularity, as it is a cheap food-crop, and very little seed is required for it. At present the area under it is 171 square miles, or 14 per cent. of the total. *Kodon* covers 70 square miles, or more than 5 per cent. There are 20 square miles under cotton and 26 under rice. *Til* and *ramtilli* (*Guizotia abyssinica*) occupy 72 square miles. Betel-vine gardens are found in Saugor, Baleh, Sahajpur, and Jaisinghnagar, and the leaf of Baleh has some reputation.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

At the time of settlement (1892-3) the cropped area amounted to about 1,600 square miles, but the prolonged agricultural depression reduced this in 1905 to about 1,250 square miles. It may be anticipated that with good harvests the more valuable spring crops will continue to recover the ground lost. During the recent bad seasons large agricultural loans have been made, the total advances between 1871 and 1904 amounting to more than eight lakhs. Of this total, about Rs. 50,000 has been remitted. Loans for the improvement of land have been taken to a much smaller extent, but over Rs. 50,000 was advanced between 1891 and 1904 for the construction of embankments for wheat-fields.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

Most of the cattle in the District are bred locally, and are small but hardy, though no care is exercised in breeding, and special bulls are not kept for this purpose. Superior plough-cattle are imported from Mālwā and Gwalior, but not in large numbers. Buffaloes are not used for cultivation, but they are kept for the manufacture of *ghī*, and the young bulls are taken by road to Chhattīsgarh and sold there. Ponies are bred in the District, but not to so large an extent as formerly. They are of very small size, and are used both for riding and pack-carriage. Since the extension of metalled roads the people prefer to travel in bullock-carts. Mules are bred in small numbers for sale to the Military department. Donkeys are used only as pack-animals by the lowest castes.

Irrigation.

Only 5,500 acres, or 1 per cent. of the total under cultivation, was irrigated in 1903-4, and this area consists principally of rice or garden crops. Irrigation from temporary wells is common in the north of the Bandā *tahsīl*, where the light soils respond more readily to it. The embanking of fields to hold up moisture for wheat cultivation is scarcely practised at all in this District, but a few banks have been erected to prevent surface scouring on uneven land. Some of the leading landholders have, however, now adopted the practice of embanking their fields, and experimental embankments have been constructed by Government.

Forests.

Government forests cover 755 square miles, or rather less than 19 per cent. of the area of the District. There are large forests in the hills of the north and south, and a series of scattered blocks on the range running from north-east to south-west. Teak, *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *chiulā* or *palās* (*Butea frondosa*), and bamboos are the principal trees. Teak is fairly common, but the timber is inferior. The *palās* scrub

forest, found in the plains, is of an open nature, and the trees are freely propagated by seed, but the seedlings are often destroyed by the winter frosts and by fires in the hot season. Among minor products may be noticed charcoal, which is sold to the iron-workers of Tendūkhedā in Narsinghpur, and the *rūsa tikāri* grass (*Andropogon Schoenanthus*) used in the manufacture of scent. The forests of Bandā are rich in *mahuā* trees, which are of great value in times of scarcity. The forest revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 47,000.

Minerals.

Iron is found in the north of the District in Hīrāpur and other villages of the Shāhgarh *pargana*, and is still worked by hand smelting, but the industry has greatly declined. Sandstone quarries occur in several places, from which building stone of a good quality is obtained, the best being at Rāhatgarh and Maswāsi, just north of Saugor. The earthen vessels made of red clay in Shāhgarh have a local reputation.

Arts and manufactures.

Weaving and dyeing are carried on principally at Saugor, Rehlī, Deorī, Gourjhāmar, and Garhākotā; brass-working at Deori, Khurai, and Mālthone; iron-work at Rāhatgarh; and the manufacture of glass bangles at Garhākotā, Pithoriā, and Rāhatgarh. At Pithoriā glass beads and rude phials for holding scent are also made. Gold and silver work is produced at Saugor, Khurai, and Etāwa, but many of the Sonārs (goldsmiths) have fallen back on the manufacture of ornaments from bell-metal. The local industries are generally, as elsewhere in the Province, in a depressed condition. There are no factories in the District.

Commerce.

The principal exports consist of food-grains, and until lately those of wheat were of far greater importance than all others combined. But in recent years the exports of wheat have declined almost to vanishing point, though with favourable harvests they will probably soon recover. At present the most important articles of exports are the oilseeds, *til* and linseed. Cotton and hemp (*san*) are exported to some extent; also *ghī* in large quantities, dried meat (to Burma), hides, horns and bones, and forest produce. Betel-vine leaves are sent to the United Provinces, and the skins and horns of antelope are sold for ornamental purposes. The imports are principally cotton piece-goods, kerosene oil, metals, all minor articles of hardware, groceries and spices. Country cloth comes principally from the Bombay mills; unrefined sugar is imported from the United Provinces, refined sugar from Bombay and Cawnpore, and tobacco from Cawnpore and Bengal. Nearly all the salt used comes from the Pachbhadrā salt marshes in Jodhpur.

Railways and roads. Before the opening of the railway from Bīna to Katnī nearly the whole trade of Saugor District went to Karelī station in Narsinghpur District by the Saugor-Karelī road, crossing the Narbadā at Barmhān; but at present the bulk of the trade of the District is concentrated at Saugor station. The three southern *parganas* of the Rehlī *tahsīl*—Nāharmow, Gourjhāmar, and Deorī—still send their exports to Karelī, while the Shāhgarh *pargana* in the north of the Bandā *tahsīl* has a certain amount of traffic with Cawnpore by road. The branch line from Bīna, on the Indian Midland line of the Great Indian Peninsula, to Katnī, on the East Indian Railway, passes through the centre of Saugor District. The length of this railway within the District is 71 miles, and there are seven stations, of which Bīna, Khurai, Saugor, and Shāhpur are trade centres. The main line of the Indian Midland Railway from Itārsi to Cawnpore also runs through the north-west of the Khurai *tahsīl* for seventeen miles, and the stations of Bāmora, Bīna, Agāsode, and Karondā are situated on it, while another branch leads from Bīna to Bāran. The principal roads are those leading from Saugor to Karelī, Rāhatgarh, and Rehlī, to Cawnpore through Bandā, to Damoh through Garhākotā, and to Jhānsi through Mālthone. Of these the Karelī and Rāhatgarh roads are metalled throughout, the Rehlī road for most of its length, and the Cawnpore and Jhānsi roads for a few miles out of Saugor town. The importance of the Karelī road has now largely decreased. The total length of metalled roads in the District is 117 miles, and of unmetalled roads 162 miles; the annual expenditure on maintenance is about Rs. 50,000. A few minor roads are maintained by the District council, but all others are in charge of the Public Works department. The length of avenues of trees is 185 miles.

Famine. There is little on record of the agricultural history of the District prior to the thirty years' settlement of 1867, but severe failures of crops are known to have occurred more than once during the first half of the century and also in the years 1854 to 1856. In 1868-9 the autumn harvest failed entirely owing to drought, and some distress was felt by the poorer classes. In 1878, 1889, and 1890 the harvests were poor, and there was again a certain amount of privation. The spring crops were below the average in 1892-3, and in 1893-4 and 1894-5 they failed almost entirely from excessive winter rains. Relief works were opened in 1894, but the people did not resort to them in large numbers. In 1895-6 both crops were again

seriously injured by drought, and in 1896–7 an almost complete failure caused severe famine. Relief operations were in progress during the whole of 1897. The total expenditure exceeded 12 lakhs, and the maximum daily number of persons on relief was 58,000 in May, 1897. In 1898–9 Saugor had a poor spring crop, and in 1899–1900 the autumn crops failed entirely, though the spring crops gave an average outturn. There was again famine in this year, though far less severe in Saugor than over most of the Province. Nearly 11 lakhs was spent on relief, and the numbers relieved rose to 87,000 in August, 1900. It will thus be seen that the District has lately passed through a most severe and protracted period of agricultural depression.

District subdivisions and staff.

The executive head of the District is the Deputy-Commissioner, who is also District Magistrate, with three Assistants. For administrative purposes the District is divided into four *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*, except Bandā, which has only a *tahsīldār*. An Executive Engineer and a Forest officer are stationed at Saugor.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and a Subordinate Judge, with a Munsif at each *tahsīl*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of Jubbulpore has superior civil and criminal jurisdiction. The crime of the District is somewhat heavy as compared with other parts of the Province. Robberies and dacoities are comparatively frequent, and cattle-stealing and simple theft are also common offences. Opium smuggling from the adjoining Native States is prevalent.

Land revenue administration.

Under the Marāthā revenue system villages were farmed out to the highest bidder, and any rights or consideration which the village headmen may have enjoyed in the past were almost entirely effaced. No legal status was given to tenants, and the older cultivators were protected only by custom, which enjoined that, so long as the annual rent demand was paid, their tenure should be hereditary and continuous. The land revenue history of the District during the period following the cession in 1818 consists of a series of abortive attempts to raise a revenue equal to or exceeding that of the Marāthā government, when the people had become impoverished by the exactions of that government during the last period of its rule, and by the depredations of the Pindāris. The demand at cession was a little short of 6 lakhs. A series of annual and short-term settlements ensued till 1835, when a twenty years' settlement was made, and the revenue fixed at Rs. 6,27,000. This settlement did not work well, and the disturbances of

1842 seriously injured the District, necessitating a general reduction of revenue varying from 10 to 20 per cent. Large remissions of the ordinary demand were also frequently made during the currency of this settlement. In 1854 a revision of settlement was commenced, but owing to the Mutiny and other causes was not completed throughout the District until 1867. The effect of this settlement was to reduce the revenue to Rs. 4,64,000. On this occasion the village headmen received, according to the general policy of the Central Provinces Administration, proprietary and transferable rights in their villages. The settlement was for the term of thirty years, and the District prospered, the cropped area increasing from 1,040 to 1,250 square miles. In 1891, after a preliminary cadastral survey had been completed, a new settlement commenced, but owing to interruptions caused by famine it was not completed till 1897. The revenue then fixed amounted to nearly Rs. 6,96,000. In spite of the enhanced revenue, the share of the 'assets' left to the proprietors was considerably larger than at the former settlement. But the successive failures of crops have so greatly reduced both the area under cultivation and the value of the crops grown that the District has been unable to pay the revised demand, and successive reductions have been made. The revenue as now fixed (1903–4) is Rs. 5,00,000, the average incidence per acre being R. 0–10–3 (maximum R. 0–13–7, minimum R. 0–5–11); while the incidence of the rental is Rs. 1–1–6 (maximum Rs. 1–7–0, minimum R. 0–10–10). The total revenue receipts in the District have varied, as shown below (in thousands of rupees):—

	1880–1.	1890–1.	1900–1.	1903–4.
Land revenue . .	4,43	4,52	4,91	4,96
Total revenue . .	7,23	7,67	7,34	7,51

Local boards and municipalities.

The management of local affairs outside municipal areas is entrusted to a District council, under which are four local boards each having jurisdiction over a single *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903–4 was Rs. 74,000. The main items of expenditure were: education (Rs. 20,000), public works (Rs. 18,000), and medical relief (Rs. 9,000). SAUGOR, DEORĪ, and KHURAI are municipal towns.

Police and jails.

The sanctioned strength of the police force is 653 of all ranks. This includes a special reserve of 2 officers and 23 men, 7 mounted constables, and cantonment police numbering 31. In proportion to area and population the police force

is stronger in Saugor than in any other District of the Central Provinces, owing to the fact that it is surrounded by Native States, and thieves and dacoits find it easy to escape across the border. There are 1,523 village watchmen for 1,929 inhabited towns and villages. Saugor has a first-class District jail, with accommodation for 145 male and 22 female prisoners. The average daily number of prisoners in 1904 was 91.

In respect of education Saugor stands sixth among the Districts of the Central Provinces, 7·7 per cent. of its male population being able to read and write. Only 919 females were returned as literate in 1901; but this is probably an understatement, as the people object to admitting that their women can read and write. Statistics of the number of pupils under instruction are as follows: (1880–1) 5,255; (1890–1) 5,959; (1900–1) 6,339; (1903–4) 8,401, of whom 1,331 were girls. Owing to the prevalence of famine in 1900–1 the numbers were reduced, but a great advance has been made since. The educational institutions comprise a Government high school at Saugor town, 20 middle and 113 primary schools. Notwithstanding the small number of its women shown by the Census as literate, Saugor is one of the most advanced Districts in the Province in respect of female education. The expenditure on education in 1903–4 was Rs. 74,000, of which Rs. 67,000 was provided from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 7,000 from fees. Education.

The District has 8 dispensaries, with accommodation for 97 in-patients. The total attendance at all of them in 1904 was 71,166 persons, including 653 in-patients, and 2,549 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 15,000, chiefly derived from Local funds; and they possess Rs. 6,800 invested capital. Hospitals and dispensaries.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns of Saugor, Khurai, and Deorī. In 1903–4 the number of persons successfully vaccinated was 34 per 1,000 of the population of the District. Vaccination.

[E. A. De Brett, *Settlement Report*, 1901. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Saugor Tahsīl.—Head-quarters *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 31′ and 24° 1′ N. and 78° 14′ and 79° 6′ E., with an area of 1,064 square miles. The population decreased from 207,456 in 1891 to 166,399 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 156 persons per square mile, or considerably above the District average. The *tahsīl* contains one town, SAUGOR (population, 42,330), the District and

tahsīl head-quarters, and 525 inhabited villages. Excluding 124 square miles of Government forest, 57 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 435 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 185,000, and for cesses Rs. 19,000. The lie of the country is undulating, and stretches of good cultivable land alternate with small hills and patches of forest.

Khurai Tahsīl (*Kurai*).—North-western *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 51′ and 24° 27′ N. and 78° 4′ and 78° 43′ E., with an area of 940 square miles. The population decreased from 126,004 in 1891 to 93,788 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 100 persons per square mile, which is below the District average. The *tahsīl* contains two towns, KHURAI (population, 6,012), the head-quarters, and ETĀWA (6,418), and 470 inhabited villages. Excluding 124 square miles of Government forest, 45 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 238 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 77,000, and for cesses Rs. 8,000. The *tahsīl* is an open undulating plain, with a stretch of hilly and stony land in the north, and belts of forest on the borders of the Bīna and Betwā rivers.

Rehlī.—Southern *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 9′ and 23° 54′ N. and 78° 36′ and 79° 22′ E., with an area of 1,299 square miles in 1901. The population decreased from 171,090 in 1891 to 138,030 in 1901. In 1902 11 villages and 30 square miles of Government forest were transferred to Narsinghpur District, and the revised totals of area and population are 1,254 square miles and 136,463 persons. The density is 109 persons per square mile, or below the District average. The *tahsīl* contains two towns, GARHĀKOTĀ (population, 8,508) and DEORĪ (4,980), and 660 inhabited villages. The head-quarters of the *tahsīl* are at Rehlī, a village of 3,665 inhabitants, 26 miles from Saugor by road, and situated at the junction of the Sonār and Dehār rivers. Excluding 327 square miles of Government forest, 69 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 443 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,71,000, and for cesses Rs. 18,000. The *tahsīl* contains some fertile plain country round Garhākotā and Deorī, with stretches of poor hilly land on the western and southern borders.

Bandā.—North-eastern *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central

Provinces, lying between 23° 53′ and 24° 37′ N. and 78° 40′ and 79° 13′ E., with an area of 704 square miles. The population decreased from 87,193 in 1891, to 72,829 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 103 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 269 inhabited villages. The head-quarters are at Bandā, a village of 1,406 inhabitants, distant 19 miles from Saugor by road. Excluding 180 square miles of Government forest, 54 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 227 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 67,000, and for cesses Rs. 7,000. Bandā is the poorest *tahsīl* in the District, containing a large area of hill and rock with some open plains of limited extent in the south.

Bīna.—Railway junction in the Khurai *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central Provinces, situated in 24° 12′ N. and 78° 14′ E., 2 miles from the town of Etāwa. Population (1901), 1,826. The main line of the Indian Midland section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Itārsi to Cawnpore and Agra passes Bīna, and is connected here with Katnī junction on the East Indian Railway by a branch line through Saugor and Damoh. Another branch line has been constructed from Bīna to Gūnā and Bāran. Bīna is 607 miles from Bombay and 806 miles from Calcutta. A number of railway officials reside here and form a company of volunteers.

Deorī.—Town in the Rehlī *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 23′ N. and 79° 2′ E., on the Sukchain river, 40 miles from Saugor town. Population (1901), 4,980. Deorī contains an old fort. It was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 4,200; and in 1903-4 they amounted to Rs. 4,300, the chief source being a house tax. When the produce of Saugor District was taken by road to Karelī station, Deorī was a commercial town of some importance, but this is no longer the case. It contains a vernacular middle school, a girls' school, and a dispensary.

Eran.—Village in the Khurai *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central Provinces, situated in 24° 6′ N. and 78° 11′ E., at the junction of the Bīna and Reutā rivers, 6 miles from Bāmora station on the Indian Midland section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1901), 171. A most interesting collection of archaeological remains is to be seen on some high ground near the village. There were at one time several small Vaishnava temples, but these are now in ruins. The principal statue is a colossal *Varāha*, or figure of the boar-incarnation of

Vishnu, 10 feet high and 15 feet long. A garland of small human figures is sculptured on a band round the neck, and the figure bears an inscription of the White Hun king Toramāna. From a record of Samudra Gupta on a stone close by, it is inferred that this is one of the oldest Brāhmanical statues in India, but the coins found here show that the place was inhabited before the Christian era. Another remarkable object is a great stone column, 47 feet high, standing before the temples, which bears an inscription of Budha Gupta, dated in A.D. 484-5. Another inscription, on a pillar now turned into a *lingam*, records perhaps the earliest known *satī* immolation in India.

[J. F. Fleet, *Gupta Inscriptions* (1888), pp. 18, 88, 91, and 158.]

Etāwa.—Town in the Khurai *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central Provinces, situated in 24° 12′ N. and 78° 14′ E., 2 miles from Bīna railway junction. Population (1901), 6,418. Etāwa is not a municipality, but a town fund is raised for sanitary purposes. The opening of the branch line from Bīna to Katnī has greatly increased the importance of Etāwa, and it is a thriving place. It contains vernacular middle and girl's schools, as well as schools and a dispensary supported from missionary funds.

Garhākotā.—Town in the Rehlī *tahsīl* of Saugor District, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 46′ N. and 79° 9′ E., at the junction of the Gadherī and Sonār rivers, 28 miles from Saugor on the Damoh road. Population (1901), 8,508. In the fork of the Sonār and Gadherī rivers stands an old fort which must formerly have been of great strength. It was held by the rebels and stormed by Sir Hugh Rose in 1858. Two miles from the town in the forest is a high tower which formed part of the summer palace of a Bundelā king, and is said to have been constructed in order that both Saugor and Damoh might be visible from its summit. The municipality of Garhākotā has recently been abolished, but a town fund is raised for sanitary purposes. Garhākotā is now best known as the site of a large and important cattle-fair held annually in the month of February. It contains vernacular middle and girls' schools, and a dispensary.

Khurai Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, in Saugor District, Central Provinces, situated in 24° 3′ N. and 78° 20′ E., on the railway line towards Bīna, 33 miles from Saugor town. Population (1901), 6,012. An old fort is now used as the *tahsīl* office. Khurai contains a considerable colony of Jains and a number of fine Jain temples.

It was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 15,300. In 1903-4 the receipts were Rs. 8,000, mainly derived from fees on the registration of cattle. The town is a collecting centre for local trade. A large weekly cattle market is held here, and dried meat is prepared for export to Burma. Khurai contains an English middle, two branch and two girls' schools, one of which is supported by the Swedish Lutheran Mission, and a dispensary.

Saugor Town.—Head-quarters of the District and *tahsīl* of the same name in the Central Provinces, situated in 23° 51′ N. and 78° 45′ E., with a station on the Bīna-Katnī connexion of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 654 miles from Bombay and 760 from Calcutta. Its population (1901) is 42,330, including the cantonment (10,918), and it is the third largest town in the Province. The population in 1901 included 32,038 Hindus, 8,286 Muhammadans, 1,027 Jains, and 762 Christians, of whom 406 were Europeans and Eurasians. The population in 1872 was 45,655; in 1881, 44,461; and in 1891, 44,676. The garrison consists of one native cavalry and one native infantry regiment, a detachment of British infantry, and a field battery.

Saugor is supposed to be the Sageda of Ptolemy. The name is derived from *sāgar*, 'a lake,' after the large lake round which it is built. The town is picturesquely situated on spurs of the Vindhyan Hills which surround the lake on three sides, and reach an elevation of about 2,000 feet. Saugor has an old fort extending over an area of six acres, which was built by the Marāthās, and which the European residents held for several months in 1857, controlling the town while the surrounding country was in the hands of the rebels. A municipality was constituted in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 77,600. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 75,000, the main head of receipt being octroi, while water-supply and conservancy form the largest items of expenditure, which amounted to Rs. 73,000 in the same year. The receipts of the cantonment fund in 1903-4 were Rs. 26,000. Saugor is not a growing town, and each Census has shown its population as either stationary or slowly declining. It has no factories; and the industries of weaving, brass-working, oil-pressing, and the manufacture of gold and silver ornaments, which formerly contributed substantially to its wealth, are now declining. There is a printing press with Hindī type. The high school at Saugor was established in 1828 by Captain Paton of the Bengal Artillery from his private funds, and supported by a Marāthā

gentleman, Rao Krishna Rao. Lord William Bentinck on his visit to Saugor was so struck by the public spirit displayed by the latter gentleman that he invited him to Calcutta and presented him with a gold medal and an estate of the value of Rs. 1,000 a year. The school was subsequently removed to Jubbulpore, but was re-established at Saugor in 1885. The town contains various branch and mission schools, three dispensaries, and a veterinary dispensary. A station of the Swedish Lutheran Mission has been established here.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Damoh District.—District in the Jubbulpore Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 23° 10′ and 24° 26′ N. and 79° 3′ and 79° 57′ E., with an area of 2,816 square miles. It is in the extreme north of the Province, and forms part of the Vindhyan plateau. On the west it abuts on Saugor, with which it is closely connected geographically and historically. On the south and east it is bounded by Narsinghpur and Jubbulpore; and to the north it marches with the Bundelkhand States of Pannā and Chhatarpur. The rivers and streams follow the general slope of the country and flow northward, rising near the crest of the scarp over the Narbadā, and discharging their waters into the Ken, a tributary of the Jumna. The main systems are those of the Sonār and the Beārma. The Sonār, with its principal affluent the Koprā, rises in the south of Saugor District and flows through broad valleys of open black soil country. The Beārma rises in the Vindhyan highlands south of Damoh, and traverses the most rugged and broken portion of the District. During the greater part of its course it is confined between rocky cliffs, and such valleys as open out are nowhere extensive. Its principal tributaries are the Guraiyā, the Sūn, and the Pathrī, with a character closely resembling its own. The Sonār and the Beārma unite just beyond the northern border of the District and pour their joint streams into the Ken. The small valley of Singrāmpur, which is cut off from the open country of Jubbulpore by the KAIMUR range, possesses a drainage system of its own. The Phalkū, which waters it, flows in a southerly instead of northerly direction, and joins the Narbadā by forcing its way through an extraordinary cleft in the hills known as the Katās. The most striking natural feature of the District is undoubtedly the sheer scarp of the Vindhyan range, which for some distance overhangs the Jubbulpore plain, but turns inward where met by the Kaimur Hills, and forms the western enclosure of the landlocked valleys of Singrāmpur and Jaberā. On an isolated buttress commanding the Jubbulpore-Damoh

road stands the old hill fortress of Singorgarh. In the southern two-thirds of the District the prevailing features are low hills and scrub jungle, opening now and again into poor little upland valleys generally peopled by Gonds, and less frequently into deeper and broader beds of black soil cultivation, whence the Gonds have been ousted by Hindu immigrants. The Sonār valley in the north of the District presents, however, a complete contrast to this description, consisting of a fertile and closely cultivated plain, while lines of blue hills on the horizon are the only indication of the different character of the country on either margin of the valley. The elevation of the plain portion of the District is about 1,200 feet above the sea.

Geology. The principal rock formation is the Vindhyan sandstone of pinkish colour, lying in horizontal slabs, which commonly testify to their origin by curious ripple marks manifestly formed by the lapping of water on a sandy shore. The rocks are chiefly thick masses of sandstone with alternations of shale. The calcareous element is deficient, being represented only by a single limestone band of importance. On the Jubbulpore border of the District metamorphic rock occurs, forming the distinctive range of hills already mentioned as the Kaimur, with strata upheaved into an almost vertical position.

Botany. Of the total area of the District 28 per cent. is included in Government forests, and at least 20 per cent. is scrub or tree jungle in private hands. Teak and *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) are the principal timber trees, and other species are *achār* (*Buchanania latifolia*), *tendū* or ebony (*Diospyros tomentosa*), and *palās* (*Butea frondosa*). Considerable patches of bamboos are scattered over the hill-sides. The villages are surrounded by trees or groves of mango, tamarind, *pīpal*, banyan, *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*), and similar species of a more or less useful or quasi-sacred character.

Fauna. Among wild animals, *sāmbar*, *nīlgai*, spotted deer, and especially hogs are numerous. Four-horned deer and mouse deer are occasionally met with. Herds of antelope are found all over the open country. Lynx and wolves may be mentioned as rare animals which have been seen. The commonest game birds are peafowl and partridge. *Murrel* fish are numerous in the pools of the Beārma.

Climate and rainfall. The climate is cold in winter and temperate in summer. Damoh town is somewhat hotter than the rest of the District in the summer months, owing to the rocky hills which overhang it. The disease of guinea-worm is prevalent. The annual rainfall at Damoh averages 51 inches, that of Hattā being

several inches less. Until recent years the District has rarely suffered from deficiency of rainfall. Violent hailstorms are not infrequent about spring-time, and the north-eastern portion of the Hattā *tahsīl* seems peculiarly liable to them. Sharp frosts are often experienced at night, especially in the small elevated valleys of the south; and if occurring late in the season, they may turn a promising wheat crop into an absolute failure.

History. In the tenth century Damoh was included in the territories of the Chandel Rājput dynasty of MAHOBĀ. A number of old temples are attributed to the Chandels, and Nohtā is held to have been the seat of government during their supremacy. In 1383 Damoh became part of the Delhi kingdom of the Tughlak dynasty, according to a Persian inscription on a gateway in the town; but the dominion of the Muhammadans was at this time nominal, and the country appears to have been in reality governed by Gond chieftains who had established themselves on the ruins of the old Rājput kingdoms, shattered by the Muhammadan invasions. In 1564 the Muhammadan forces under Asaf Khān invaded Damoh, and defeated the army of Rānī Durgāvati of the Garhā-Mandlā dynasty at Singorgarh. This invasion was followed by the occupation of Damoh on behalf of the emperor Akbar. The rule of the Mughals continued for about ninety years, when most of the imperial troops had to be withdrawn to oppose the rising power of the Marāthās; and Chhatarsāl, the young Bundelā Rājā of the neighbouring Pannā State, soon afterwards took advantage of the opportunity to eject the remnants of the Muhammadan garrisons, and to add Saugor and Damoh to his already extensive territory of Pannā. The Bundelā supremacy lasted for a period of about sixty years and did not extend to the south of the District, where the small Lodhī and Gond chieftains continued to hold their estates in practical independence. In 1729 Chhatarsāl was compelled to solicit the aid of the Peshwā to repel a threatened invasion of his kingdom. In return for the assistance rendered him, he bequeathed to the Peshwā by will a third of his territories, including Saugor. The Marāthās under Govind Rao Pandit, governor of Saugor, gradually extended their influence over Damoh, which was administered by them in subordination to Saugor, until, with the deposition of the Peshwā and the annexation of the Poona dominions under Lord Hastings, Saugor and Damoh passed under British rule in 1818.

During the Mutiny the District was in a very disturbed

condition for a period of about six months, nearly every Lodhī landholder throwing off his allegiance except the petty Rājā of Hatrī. The town of Damoh was for some time held by a detachment of the 42nd regiment of native infantry, which remained faithful in spite of the fact that there were no British officers in the station. The town was subsequently reoccupied, but again abandoned, and garrisoned only by the friendly troops of the Rājā of Pannā. During this period, in October, 1857, a band of the mutinous native infantry regiment from Saugor plundered the town and burnt the public buildings and all the Government records. After the departure of the mutineers the town was again occupied by the Pannā troops, and held until it was taken over by the civil officers in March, 1858.

Archaeology. The archaeological remains consist principally of ruined forts erected by the Rājputs, Gonds, Muhammadans, and Marāthās, who have at different periods held sway over portions of the District. The principal fort is that of Singorgarh, which is believed to have been built by the Paramāra Rājputs in the beginning of the fourteenth century, and was afterwards held and enlarged by the Gond Garhā-Mandlā princes. Narsinghgarh on the Sonār river, 12 miles from Damoh, was the capital of the District during the period of Muhammadan ascendancy. It contains a fort and a mosque constructed by the Muhammadan Dīwān Shāh Taiyab, and a second fort built by the Marāthās, which was partially destroyed in 1857. At Kundalpur, 20 miles from Damoh, are situated a collection of fifty or more Jain temples, covering the hill, and gleaming white in the distance. Bāndakpur, 10 miles east of Damoh, is the site of a famous temple of Mahādeo, to which pilgrims come even from as far as Lahore. At Nohtā, 13 miles from Damoh, there are numerous remains of temples both Hindu and Jain, but they have been almost entirely destroyed, and the stone used for building; pillars, lintels, sculptures, and other fragments are found throughout the village in the walls of houses and enclosures.

The people. The figures of population at the last three enumerations were: (1881) 312,957; (1891) 325,613; (1901) 285,326. The increase between 1881 and 1891 was considerably less than that for the Province as a whole, owing to bad seasons in the latter part of the decade. Between 1891 and 1901 Damoh suffered from a succession of disastrous failures of the spring crops, and distress or famine was prevalent in several years. The District contains one town, DAMOH, and 1,116 inhabited

villages. The principal statistics of population in 1901 are shown below, having been adjusted for a small transfer of area in 1902:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Damoh . .	1,797	1	692	183,316	102	− 6.5	7,103
Hattā . .	1,019	..	424	102,010	100	−21·3	3,956
District total	2,816	1	1,116	285,326	101	−12·4	11,059

The open country in the centre is most closely populated, rising to over 200 persons per square mile in the Damoh and Pathariā police circles. About 85 per cent. of the population are Hindus, 9½ per cent. Animists, 3 per cent. Muhammadans, and 2½ per cent. Jains. Practically the entire population speak the Bundelī dialect of Western Hindī, the Gonds having abandoned their own language.

Their castes and occupations. The principal castes are Lodhīs, who number 13 per cent. of the population, Kurmīs 8 per cent., Chamārs 12 per cent., and Gonds 9½ per cent. The most influential proprietors in the District are Lodhīs, and as a class they were openly disaffected in the Mutiny. They are fine, stalwart men, devoted to sport and with a certain amount of military swagger. The Kurmīs are the best agricultural caste in the District. Labourers are principally Chamārs in the open country and Gonds in the hills. The latter are miserably poor and live in great squalor. At the spring harvest they come down in large numbers from the hills to the open country of Damoh and Jubbulpore, and obtain full employment for a month or two in cutting the wheat crop. On their earnings in the harvest they subsist during the hot season. About 67 per cent. of the population of the District were returned as supported by agriculture in 1901.

Christian missions. Christians number 90, of whom 59 are natives. An American mission of the unsectarian body known as the Disciples of Christ has been established in Damoh town.

General agricultural conditions. In soil and character of cultivation the open valley of the Sonār, known as the Havelī, differs considerably from the rest of the District. The lands are here almost uniformly composed of black soil from trap or volcanic rock, of the light and friable kind known locally as *mund.* The depth is generally considerable, and degrees of productiveness vary according to

the lie of the surface, sloping land, owing to denudation of the finer particles of soil, being less valuable than that in a level position, whether high or low-lying. This soil occupies more than 47 per cent. of the cultivated area, the best black soil or *kābar* covering 10½ per cent. These two soils will as a rule produce wheat. Poor brown soil called *pataruā* or 'thin,' on which inferior spring or autumn crops are grown, accounts for 29 per cent. Nearly one-third of the land occupied for cultivation is under old and new fallows, this large proportion being due partly to the necessity for resting fallows in the poorer soils, and partly to the spread of *kāns* grass (*Saccharum spontaneum*) on land which is not continually cropped.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

Nearly four square miles taken from Government forests have been settled on the *ryotwāri* tenure, and pay a revenue of Rs. 4,000. The balance of the village area is held on the ordinary tenures. The principal statistics of cultivation in 1903-4 are shown below, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forest.
Damoh . .	1,797	527	1½	469	543
Hattā . .	1,019	335	1	329	249
Total	2,816	862	2½	798	792

Wheat, either alone or mixed with gram, now covers 278 square miles, or 29½ per cent. of the cropped area, as compared with 46 per cent. at settlement; gram occupies 70 square miles, linseed 46, rice 80, and the millet *kodon* 105. A noticeable change in cultivation in recent years is the extension of the practice of sowing wheat mixed with gram, the area under wheat alone being now comparatively insignificant. Linseed is also mixed with gram. The total area under wheat and its mixtures is at present far below the normal, and the substitution of less valuable autumn crops is an unmistakable, though perhaps temporary, sign of deterioration. *Jowār* covers nearly 15 per cent. of the cropped area, and *til* over 11 per cent. There are a number of betel-vine gardens at Damoh and Hindoriā, and the leaves are sometimes exported to Northern India. *Singhāra*, or water-nut, is largely cultivated by Dhīmars in the principal tanks, and is also exported.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

The occupied area increased by 16 per cent. between the settlements of 1864 and 1894, but the newly broken-up land is of inferior quality, and no great extension of cultivation seems possible in the future. Advances under the Agricul-

turists' Loans Act were inconsiderable until the scarcity of 1894, but between that year and 1904 they amounted to 6·91 lakhs. During the same period Rs. 75,000 has been taken under the Land Improvement Act, principally for the embankment of fields.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

Cattle are bred generally in the District, and are also imported from the valley of the Ken river in Pannā State and from Gwalior. The local cattle are small in size, and no care is usually exercised in breeding, which is carried on from immature bulls. Buffaloes are also bred to a considerable extent, the cows being kept for the manufacture of *ghī* from their milk, and the young bulls sold into Chhattīsgarh. They are sometimes used for draught, but not for cultivation. Small ponies are bred, and used for riding and pack-carriage. Those of a superior class were formerly also sold in Jubbulpore as tonga-ponies and for riding purposes, but pony breeding has greatly decreased since the famines. Sheep and goats are bred in considerable numbers; country blankets are woven from sheep's wool, and the milk of goats is sold to confectioners, and *ghī* is also made from it. Goats are, however, kept principally to be sold for food.

Irrigation.

The area irrigated varies from 2,000 to 4,000 acres, of which a maximum of 1,400 acres is under rice. The balance of the irrigated area consists principally of market-gardens cultivated by men of the Kāchhī caste. The rice land is considered to afford some scope for the extension of irrigation. The District contains about 300 tanks, but these were principally constructed in the time of the Marāthās for drinking purposes, and are used only to a small extent for irrigation. It has also about 1,000 wells. Wheat-fields are rarely embanked to retain water in the open country of the centre of the District, but the practice is more common in the smaller valleys wedged in among the hill ranges to the south. Small embankments to cut off the surface drainage from a sloping field are made more frequently.

Forests.

Government forests occupy an area of 792 square miles, situated mainly in the north and south of the District, with some scattered blocks in the centre. They are not as a rule valuable. Teak and *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) are found either scattered or in groups of limited extent, and straight stems of more than three feet in girth do not occur in any considerable numbers. The dye furnished by the lac insect is the most important minor product, and its cultivation is steadily increasing. It is largely exported to Northern India.

The gross forest revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 60,000, of which half was realized from grazing and fodder grass.

Minerals. Iron ore has been found in small quantities in the north of the District near the Pannā border, but no other mineral deposits are known to exist. Good building sandstone is found in a few localities.

Arts and manufactures. Country cloth is still woven by hand by Korīs and Koshtās, but since the opening of the railway the weavers have ceased to prosper. The chief weaving centres are Bānsa Kalān, Damoh, Hindoriā, Sītānagar, and Hattā. Women's *sārīs* are principally woven, men preferring the imported cloth. Mill-spun thread is now solely used. Dyeing is carried on at Damoh, Bānsa, Tarkhedā, and Aslāna, and indigo dyeing at Hindoriā. Indigenous dyes are still used, but are rapidly being ousted by foreign dyes. Household vessels are made at Damoh and Hindoriā, the material principally used being bell-metal, which is a mixture of four parts of copper to one of tin. The pottery of Damoh has some local reputation, the clay taking a particularly smooth polish; native pipe-bowls are exported to Jubbulpore. A light silver colour is obtained by the use of mica. There is an iron industry at Jaberā; ordinary agricultural implements, knives, and ornamental areca-nut cutters are sent to other Districts. At Panchamnagar native paper is manufactured, but the industry has greatly declined, and only two families are now engaged on it. The paper is used by money-lenders for their account books. A cattle-slaughtering industry has recently been started in Damoh, and a number of butchers have settled there. Old and infirm cattle are bought up and killed, and the dried meat, hides, horns, and hoofs are exported.

Commerce. Wheat and oilseeds are the principal articles of export. In recent years the trade in the former has declined, while that in the latter has increased in importance. Teak timber for building and bamboos are sent to Northern India, and there is a considerable trade in lac, but not much in other minor forest products. *Ghī* is sent to Calcutta, but not in large quantities, and it is also received from Bundelkhand for export. The principal imports are cotton piece-goods, kerosene oil, salt, and sugar. The salt most commonly used is sea-salt from Bombay. Most of the cotton piece-goods also come from Bombay, but the finer kinds are obtained from Calcutta. Imports of kerosene oil are entirely from Bombay. *Gur* or unrefined sugar comes from Northern India, and sugar from both Mirzāpur and the Mauritius. Country tobacco is

imported from Bengal. Iron implements are obtained from Chhatarpur State, and English iron is largely imported from Bombay. Copper vessels are imported from Cawnpore, and foreign glass bangles from Bombay. The most important weekly markets are those of Nohtā, Damoh, Pathariā, and Hindoriā. Large annual fairs are held at Bāndakpur and Kundalpur, at which temporary shops are opened for the sale of ordinary merchandise, but cattle are not sold.

Railways and roads. The Bīna-Katnī section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway passes through the centre of the District, with a length of 26 miles, and 6 stations within its limits. Nearly the whole trade converges on Damoh station, with the exception of a little from the western corner, which goes to Pathariā station, and of some exports of timber from Ghaterā and Sāgoni. The principal trade routes north of the railway are from Damoh to Hattā and on to Gaisābād, and from Damoh to Narsinghgarh and Batiāgarh. A considerable quantity of the produce of the adjoining Bundelkhand States comes through Gaisābād to Hattā and Damoh, and from Pannā through Narsinghgarh. South of the railway, trade converges to Damoh from Jujhār, along the road to Jubbulpore through Nohtā and Jaberā, from Tendūkhedā and Tejgarh on to the road at Abhāna, and from Tārādehī in the extreme south through Rāmgarh and Bhūri. The two northern routes are the most important ones. The chief metalled roads are those from Damoh to Hattā for 23 miles, and from Damoh to the Jubbulpore border for 37 miles. The old military road to Saugor is now only gravelled. The total length of metalled roads is 79 miles and of unmetalled roads 96 miles, and the maintenance charges amounted in 1903-4 to Rs. 29,000. The Public Works department maintains 99 miles of road, and the District council the remainder. The length of avenues of trees is 58 miles. Carriage in the north of the District is principally by carts, and in the south by bullocks, buffaloes, and ponies.

Famine. Damoh suffered from moderate or severe failures of crops in 1854-6 and 1868-9. In 1894, on the loss of the spring crop from rust, some relief was granted from April to November, and this continued to a small extent in 1895. From 1892 to 1897 the District only once enjoyed a harvest equal to half an average, and this succession of disasters left it in poor case to bear the famine of 1896-7, when only a quarter of a normal crop was obtained. The numbers relieved in that year reached 60,000 or 18 per cent. of the population at the end of May,

and the total expenditure was 10 lakhs. In 1899–1900 the District escaped somewhat lightly as compared with others, obtaining 43 per cent. of a normal crop. Some relief had already been given on a small scale from April to October, 1899, on account of the poor harvest of the previous year. Very little more was necessary before April, 1900, and the operations closed in October. In August 43,000 persons, or 13 per cent. of the population, were in receipt of assistance, and the total expenditure was $3\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs.

District subdivisions and staff. The Deputy-Commissioner has one Assistant. For administrative purposes the District is divided into two *tahsīls*, for each of which there are a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The District usually has a Forest officer of the Provincial Service, and public works are in charge of the Executive Engineer stationed at Saugor.

Civil and criminal justice. The civil judicial staff consists of one District and one Subordinate Judge and two Munsifs. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of Jubbulpore has jurisdiction in Damoh.

Land revenue administration. Under the Marāthā revenue system villages were farmed out to the highest bidder, and any rights or consideration which the village headmen may have enjoyed in the past were almost entirely effaced. The cultivators were protected only by custom, which enjoined that so long as the annual rent demand was paid, their tenure should be hereditary and continuous. The early revenue history of the District under British administration consists mainly of a succession of abortive attempts to realize an amount equal to or exceeding that exacted during the last and worst period of Marāthā rule. The earliest settlements were made with the village headmen for triennial periods. The first entailed a demand of $3\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs, which could not be paid, and successive reductions became necessary until 1835, when a twenty years' settlement was made for 3·05 lakhs. The assessments proved, however, far too high for a District broken down by a long period of excessive taxation. It is recorded that landed property entirely lost its value, the landholders throwing up their leases and leaving large numbers of villages to be managed direct or farmed to money-lenders. The making of a fresh settlement was delayed for nine years by the Mutiny, and a thirty years' settlement was concluded in 1863–4. The revised demand was fixed at 2·78 lakhs, the District having by then recovered to a certain extent, owing to the marked rise in agricultural prices which occurred at this period. On this occasion the village headmen received proprietary and transferable rights

in their villages. During the thirty years' settlement all circumstances combined to increase the prosperity of the agricultural classes. Concurrently with an extremely light revenue demand, there was a rise in prices amounting to 50 per cent. and an increase in the area under crop of 27 per cent. At the expiration of this period a new settlement was effected for a period of twelve years from 1893-4, a shorter term than the usual period of twenty years having been fixed in order to bring Districts under settlement in regular rotation. Under it the revenue demand was increased to 4·43 lakhs, or by 58 per cent., giving an incidence of 11 annas 7 pies per cultivated acre, and varying from Rs. 1-0-8 in Batiāgarh to 3 annas 9 pies in Kumhāri. The rental incidence for the District was Rs. 1-1-10, the maximum and minimum rates being Rs. 1-11-8 and R. 0-5-10 in the same circles. The new demand would have been easily payable, but for the succession of failures of crops and consequent agricultural deterioration which have characterized the history of Damoh since its introduction. The demand has in consequence been proportionately reduced in those villages which suffered most severely, and 1903-4 stood at 3·54 lakhs. The following are the principal statistics of land and other revenue, in thousands of rupees:—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue . .	2,66	2,69	3,60	3,55
Total revenue . .	3.92	4,44	4,88	5,24

Local boards and municipalities.

The management of local affairs outside the municipal town of DAMOH is entrusted to a District council and two local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903-4 was Rs. 47,000. The expenditure was mainly on public works (Rs. 14,000) and education (Rs. 15,000).

Police and jails.

The police force consists of 322 officers and men, under a District Superintendent. There are also 728 village watchmen for 1,116 inhabited villages. Damoh town contains a District jail, with accommodation for 134 prisoners, including 14 females. The average daily number of prisoners during 1904 was 59.

Education.

The District stands eighth of those in the Central Provinces as regards the literacy of its population, 7·5 per cent. of males being able to read and write: only 373 women were returned as literate in 1901. Statistics of the number of pupils under

instruction are as follows: (1880–1) 2,420; (1890–1) 3,260; (1900–1) 3,163; (1903–4) 4,384, including 234 girls. The educational institutions comprise 2 English middle schools, 68 primary schools, and 2 private schools in receipt of fixed grants. The expenditure on education in 1903–4 was Rs. 23,000, of which Rs. 11,500 and Rs. 7,600 was provided from Provincial and Local funds respectively, and Rs. 1,500 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries.

The District has 8 dispensaries, with accommodation for 62 in-patients. During 1904 the total number of cases treated was 59,845, of whom 400 were in-patients, and 1,311 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 6,200, of which the greater part was provided from Provincial and Local funds.

Vaccination.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal town of Damoh. The proportion of successful vaccinations in 1903-4 was 36 per thousand of the population of the District.

[J. B. Fuller, *Settlement Report*, 1893. A District Gazetteer is under preparation.]

Damoh Tahsīl.—Southern *tahsīl* of Damoh District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 10′ and 24° 4′ N. and 79° 3′ and 79° 57′ E., with an area of 1,797 square miles. The population decreased from 195,937 in 1891 to 183,316 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 102 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* has one town, DAMOH (population, 13,355), and 692 inhabited villages. Excluding 543 square miles of Government forest, 53 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 527 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 2,16,000, and for cesses Rs. 22,000. The north-western portion of the *tahsīl* includes part of the open plain bordering the Sonār river, but the greater part of it consists of an alternation of low hills and narrow landlocked valleys.

Hattā.—North-eastern *tahsīl* of Damoh District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 45′ and 24° 26′ N. and 79° 8′ and 79° 52′ E., with an area of 1,019 square miles. The population decreased from 129,676 in 1891 to 102,010 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 100 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 424 inhabited villages. The head-quarters, Hattā, is a village of 4,365 inhabitants, 24 miles from Damoh town by road. Excluding 249 square miles of Government forest, 57 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 335 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same

year was Rs. 1,38,000, and for cesses Rs. 13,000. The greater part of the *tahsīl* consists of an open black soil plain in the valley of the Sonār river, with a belt of hill and forest country forming the scarp of the Vindhyan range to the north.

Damoh Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District of the same name in the Central Provinces, situated in 23° 50′ N. and 79° 27′ E., on the Bīna-Katnī branch of the Indian Midland Railway, 702 miles from Bombay. The name is supposed to be derived from Damayantī, the wife of Rājā Nala of Narwar. Population (1901) 13,355. Damoh is the fifteenth town in the Province in size, and is increasing in importance. It was made a municipality in 1867, and the municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 14,000. In 1903-4 the receipts were Rs. 22,000, derived from a variety of sources, including house tax, market dues, and cattle registration fees. Damoh is the collecting and distributing centre for local trade, and possesses the only weekly cattle market held in the District. An extensive cattle-slaughtering industry has lately grown up, and many handicrafts, such as the manufacture of vessels from bell-metal, pottery, weaving, and dyeing, are carried on. A number of betel-vine gardens are situated in the environs, and water-nuts are grown in the tanks for export. Damoh is situated below some stony hills, which radiate heat in the hot season and increase the temperature. A difficulty is experienced in obtaining good water, as the soil is very porous and there are but few wells. The town contains an English middle school, an Urdū school, some branch schools, and four dispensaries. A station of the American mission known as the Disciples of Christ is worked by European missionaries; among the institutions supported by the mission are a women's hospital and dispensary, an orphanage, a dairy farm, an industrial school and other schools.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Jubbulpore District.—District in the Jubbulpore Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 49′ and 24° 8′ N. and 79° 21′ and 80° 58′ E., at the head of what may be called the Narbadā Valley proper, with an area of 3,912 square miles. On the north and east it is bounded by the States of Maihar, Pannā, and Rewah; on the west by Damoh District; and on the south by Narsinghpur, Seonī, and Mandlā. The Narbadā, entering the District from the Mandlā highlands on the south-east, winds circuitously through its southern portion, passing within six miles of the city of Jubbulpore, and finally leaves

it on the south-western border. To the north of the Narbadā extends an open plain bounded on the north-west by offshoots of the Vindhyan, and on the south-west by those of the Sātpurā range. Farther to the north-west the surface becomes more uneven, small tracts of level alternating with broken and hilly country. The south-western plain, called the Havelī, is one of the richest and most fertile areas in the Province. It consists of a mass of embanked wheat-fields, and occupies the valley of the Hiran and Narbadā rivers, extending from the south-western border of the District as far north as the town of Sihorā, and from the Hiran river flowing close beneath the Vindhyan Hills to the railway line, including also a tract round Sarolī beyond the line. On the western bank of the Hiran, the Bhānrer range of the Vindhyan system forms the boundary between Jubbulpore and Damoh. To the south-east of the Havelī lies a large tract of poor and hilly country, forming the northern foot-hills of the Sātpurā range. North of the Havelī the Vindhyan and the Sātpurā systems approach each other more closely, until they finally almost meet in the Murwāra *tahsīl*. The Kaimur ridge of the Vindhyas commencing at Katangī runs through the west of the Sihorā *tahsīl*, and approaches Murwāra, leaving to the north-west a stretch of hill country with one or two small plateaux. On the east the Sātpurās run down to the railway between Sihorā and Sleemanābād, and from them a ridge extends northwards till it meets the Vindhyan system at Bijerāghogarh in the extreme north of the District. Between these ranges lie stretches of comparatively open country, less fertile than the Havelī. Lying at the junction of the Vindhyan and Sātpurā ranges, Jubbulpore forms part of the great central watershed of India. The southern part of the District is drained by the Narbadā and its tributaries, the Hiran and the Gaur. In the north the Mahānadī, after forming for some distance the boundary between Jubbulpore and Rewah, crosses the Murwarā *tahsīl* and passes on to join the Son, a tributary of the Ganges. The Katnī river flowing by Katnī-Murwāra is an affluent of the Mahānadī. The Ken river rises in the Kaimur range on the west, but flows for only a short distance within the District.

The valley of the Narbadā from Jubbulpore to the western boundary is an alluvial flat, chiefly composed of a stiff red or brown clay with numerous intercalated bands of sand and gravel. *Kankar* abounds throughout the deposit, and pisolitic iron granules are of frequent occurrence. The southern and Geology.

eastern portions of the District are generally covered by the Deccan trap. In the north is a continuous exposure of sub-metamorphic strata, consisting of fine earthy slate, quartzite, limestone, ribboned jasper passing locally into bluish quartzite, micaceous hematite and other rocks. In these rocks or in association with them the manganese, lead, and copper ores, and the richest iron ores of the District occur. The rocks round Jubbulpore are gneiss.

Botany.

The plain country is well wooded with mango, tamarind, *ber* (*Zizyphus Jujuba*), guava, *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*) and other fruit-bearing trees. Among the ornamental or quasi-religious trees are the banyan, *pīpal*, and *kachnār* (*Bauhinia variegata*). The hills are covered with forest, which formerly suffered great loss from the annual clearing of patches by the hill tribes and by grass fires. The principal timber trees are teak, *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*), *tendū* or ebony (*Diospyros tomentosa*), and bamboos. Peaches and pine-apples and excellent potatoes and other vegetables are also grown.

Fauna.

The usual wild animals and birds are found in Jubbulpore, and there is a considerable variety of game. Tigers and leopards are the common carnivora; and the deer and antelope tribe includes *sāmbar*, spotted deer, black buck, and the *chinkāra* or Indian gazelle.

Rainfall and climate.

The annual rainfall averages 59 inches, and is usually copious, that of Murwāra in the north being somewhat lighter and also apparently more variable. The climate is pleasant and salubrious. The average maximum temperature in May does not exceed 106°, and in the cold weather light frosts are not infrequent.

History.

The village of Tewar, lying a few miles from Jubbulpore, is the site of the old city of Tripura, or Karanbel, the capital of the Kalachuri dynasty. The information available about the Kalachuri or Chedi dynasty has been pieced together from a number of inscriptions found in Jubbulpore District, in Chhattīsgarh, and in Benares[1]. They belonged to the Haihaya Rājputs, and were a branch of the Ratanpur family who governed Chhattīsgarh. Their rise into power possibly dates from shortly after the commencement of the Christian era, and they had an era of their own called the Chedī Samvat, which commenced in A. D. 249. For the first five or six centuries of their rule there remain only a few isolated facts; but for a period of three hundred years, from the ninth to

[1] *Records of the Archaeological Survey*, vol. ix, p. 78 seq.

the twelfth century, a complete genealogy has been drawn up. We have the names of eighteen kings, and occasional mention of their marriages or wars with the surrounding principalities, the Rāthors of Kanauj, the Chandels of Mahobā, and the Paramāras of Mālwā. Their territory comprised the upper valley of the Narbadā. From the twelfth century nothing more is known of them, and the dynasty probably came to an end, eclipsed by the rising power of Rewah or Baghelkhand. At a subsequent period, probably about the fifteenth century, Jubbulpore was included in the territories of the Gond Garhā-Mandlā dynasty, and Garhā was for some time their capital. On the subversion of the Gonds by the Marāthās in 1781, Jubbulpore formed part of the Saugor territories of the Peshwā. It was transferred to the Bhonsla Rājās of Nāgpur in 1798, and became British territory in 1818.

In 1857 Jubbulpore was garrisoned by the 52nd Native Infantry and was the head-quarters of Major Erskine, the Commissioner of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, then attached to the North-Western Provinces. In June, 1857, the demeanour of the native troops became suspicious, and the Europeans in the station were collected in the Residency, which was made defensible. The sepoys, however, remained quiet; and in August a movable column of Madras troops arrived from Kamptee, and were sent forward to restore order in the interior of Jubbulpore and Damoh Districts, which were in a very disturbed condition and were being raided by mutineers from Saugor. On September 18 the deposed Gond Rājā of Garhā-Mandlā and his son, who had been detected in a conspiracy against the British, were blown away from guns, and on that night the whole of the 52nd regiment quietly rose and left the station. The Madras troops who were then at Damoh were recalled, and on arriving at Katangī found the rebels on the farther bank of the Hiran river. The passage was forced and the enemy put to flight, and no serious disturbance occurred subsequently. The northern *pargana* of Bijerāghogarh was formerly a Native State. The chief was deposed for participation in the Mutiny, and his territory was incorporated in Jubbulpore District in 1865.

Archaeology.

The relics of the different races and religions which at one time or another have been dominant in Jubbulpore are fairly numerous, but are now for the most part in ruins. Remains of numerous old Hindu temples and fragments of carved stone are found in a group of villages on the banks of the Ken river, north-west of Murwāra. These are Rīthi, Chhoṭī-Deorī,

Simrā, Purenī, and Nāndchānd. The ruins at Bargaon belong to the Jains. Bilehrī, a little to the south, was once a place of some note; but the only remains now existing are a great tank called Lachhman Sāgar, a smaller tank, and two temples. In the centre of the District the villages of Bahurīband, Rūpnāth and Tigwān contain another group of remains. Bahurīband ('many embankments') is believed to have once been the site of a large city, conjecturally identified by Cunningham with the Tholobana of Ptolemy. The only piece of antiquity now remaining is a large naked Jain statue, with an inscription of the Kalachuri dynasty of Tewar. A small hill at Tigwān, two miles from Bahurīband, is covered with blocks of cut stone, the ruins of many temples which have been destroyed by the railway contractors. At Rūpnāth there is a famous *lingam* of Siva, which is placed in a cleft of the rock, where a stream pours over the Kaimur range, but the place is more interesting as being the site of one of the rock-inscriptions of Asoka. Separate mention is made of Garhā, now included in the city of JUBBULPORE.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 687,233; (1891) 748,146; (1901) 680,585. The gain in population of 9 per cent. between 1881 and 1891 was smaller than that for the Province as a whole. During the last decade the loss of population has been 9 per cent., being least in the Murwāra *tahsīl*. The District contains three towns, JUBBULPORE CITY, SIHORĀ, and MURWĀRA, and 2,298 inhabited villages. The principal statistics of population in 1901 are shown below:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of		Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
		Towns.	Villages.				
Jubbulpore	1,519	1	1,076	332,488	219	− 8.1	21,097
Sihorā	1,197	1	706	186,424	156	−12.5	7,974
Murwāra	1,196	1	516	161,673	135	− 7.2	6,745
District total	3,912	3	2,298	680,585	174	− 9.0	35,816

The figures for religion show that 87½ per cent. of the people are Hindus, 5½ per cent. Animists, and 5½ per cent. Muhammadans, while there are 6,177 Jains. Nearly the whole population is returned as speaking the Baghelī dialect of Eastern Hindī; this form of the language closely resembles the dialects of Oudh and Chhattīsgarh, and is found elsewhere

in the Central Provinces only in Mandlā. About 5,000 persons are returned as speaking Gondī.

Their castes and occupations. The principal landholding castes are Brāhmans (64,000), Baniās (17,000), Gonds (79,000), Kurmīs (35,000), Rājputs (17,000), and Lodhīs (41,000). The Brāhmans hold no very important estates, but numerous small ones, not infrequently assigned to them partly or wholly revenue-free from the time of the Gond rulers. Brāhmans form 9 per cent. of the total population, a fact which is partly to be attributed to the number of sacred places on the Narbadā. Kurmīs and Lodhīs are the principal cultivating castes; the Lodhīs have several fine estates, frequently held on quit-rent tenure and locally called *jāgīrs*. The Gonds number nearly 79,000, or 11½ per cent. of the population. The Bhariā Bhumiās (22,000) are another primitive tribe. The Bhumiā proper is the village priest, charged with the worship of the local deities, and generally receiving a free grant of land from the proprietor. The Bhariās, on the other hand, have strong thieving propensities, and are sometimes spoken of as a criminal tribe. The identity of the two is uncertain. The Kols, who number about 46,000, or nearly 7 per cent. of the population, live more in the open country than the Gonds, and are employed as farm-servants or on earth-work. Agriculture supports about 62 per cent. of the population.

Christian missions. Christians number 3,688, of whom 2,044 are Europeans and Eurasians. The Church Missionary Society and the Zanāna Mission of the Church of England, and others belonging to the Wesleyan, Methodist Episcopal, and Roman Catholic Churches are working in the District; all of these have their head-quarters at Jubbulpore.

General agricultural conditions. The best soil of the District is the black alluvial clay (*kābar*) or loam (*mund*) of the upper Narbadā valley. The former covers nearly 12 and the latter 26 per cent. of the cultivated area. Sandy rice land formed from crystalline rock covers about 10 per cent., and mixed black and sandy soil, which sometimes produces wheat, nearly 12 per cent. Most of the remaining land is either very shallow blackish soil, or the red and stony land of the hills. About 25 per cent. of the occupied area is generally uncultivated, long resting fallows being required for the shallow stony soil on which light rice and the minor millets are grown. The distinctive feature of agriculture in Jubbulpore is the practice of growing wheat in large embanked fields, in which water is held up during the monsoon season, and run off a fortnight or so before the grain is sown.

The advantages of this system are that there is little or no growth of weeds, most of the labour of preparing the land for sowing is saved, and the cultivator is independent of the variable autumn rain, as the fields do not dry up.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

With the exception of 1,094 acres settled on the *ryotwāri* system, all land is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The following table gives the principal statistics of cultivation in 1903–4, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Jubbulpore . .	1,519	799	2	412	113
Sihorā . .	1,197	563	2	344	96
Murwāra . .	1,196	607	1	354	137
Total	3,912	1,969	5	1,110	346

What waste land remains is situated mainly in the poor and hilly tracts, and does not offer much scope for further extension of cultivation. In the open portion or Havelī, every available acre of land has been taken up, and there are no proper grazing or even standing grounds for cattle. The gross cropped area is about 1,795 square miles, of which 156 square miles are double cropped. Wheat occupies 628 square miles or 32 per cent. of the cropped area, rice 193 square miles, *kodon* and *kutkī* 316 square miles, gram 184 square miles, and the oilseed *til* 154 square miles. As in other Districts, there has been considerable deterioration in cropping, wheat, which twelve years ago overshadowed all other crops in importance, being supplanted by millets and oilseeds of inferior value. The area sown singly with wheat is only about a third of what it was, while the practice of mixing it with gram has greatly increased in favour. Little cotton is grown in Jubbulpore, and that of a very coarse variety. Betel-vine gardens exist in a number of places, among the principal being Jubbulpore itself and Bilehrī. Fruits and vegetables are also grown to supply the local demand.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

Cultivation expanded very largely up to 1892; but the famines produced a serious decline, and complete recovery had not been attained in 1903–4. The area sown with two crops has largely increased since 1864. *San*-hemp is a profitable minor crop which has lately come into favour. During the eleven years ending 1904, Rs. 22,000 was borrowed under the Land Improvement Act, mainly for the embankment of fields, and 4·65 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act, a third of which was distributed in the famine of 1897.

The cattle bred in the District are of no special quality. Many animals of the Gwalior and Saugor breeds are imported from outside, being purchased by the local agriculturists at Garhākotā fair. The price of cattle is said to have risen largely since the famines of 1897 and 1900, owing to the numbers killed for the export of hides and flesh. The returns show that about 13,000 are slaughtered annually, while in 1896–7 the numbers amounted to 41,000 out of a total of 490,000 shown in the District returns. Grazing is very scarce in the open embanked wheat lands of the Havelī, and most of the cattle are sent to the forests for grazing during the rains, when the fields do not require ploughing. Buffaloes are bred, and the cows are kept for the manufacture of *ghī*, while the young bulls are either allowed to die from neglect or sold in Chhattīsgarh. Good cow buffaloes are expensive, their price being calculated at Rs. 12 or Rs. 13 for each *seer* of milk that they give. Ponies are bred to a small extent, and were also formerly imported from Saugor, but very few are purchased there now. Those who can afford it keep a pony for riding, as carts cannot travel over large portions of the District. Ponies, bullocks, and buffaloes are also largely used for pack-carriage. Goats and sheep are kept for food and for the manufacture of *ghī*. Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

The maximum area irrigated is about 6,000 acres, of which 2,500 are under rice, and the remainder devoted to garden crops, sugar-cane, and a little wheat and barley. There are about 2,500 wells and 134 tanks. The embanked wheat-fields, which cover about 310 square miles, are, however, practically irrigated, and the crops grown in them are very seldom affected by deficiency of rainfall. Irrigation.

The total area of Government forests is 346 square miles, or 9 per cent. of the District area. The forests are scattered in small patches all over the hilly tract east of the railway along the length of the District, while to the west lies one important block in the Murwāra *tahsīl*, and a few smaller ones. The *sāl*-tree (*Shorea robusta*) occupies a portion of the Murwāra forests. The remainder are of the type familiar on the dry hills of Central India, low scrub jungle, usually open and composed of a large variety of species, few of which, however, yield timber or attain large dimensions. Teak is found in places mixed with other species. Among the more important minor products may be mentioned the *mahuā* flower, myrabolams, and honey. The forest revenue in 1903–4 was Rs. 42,000. Forests.

Minerals. Iron ores, some of which are very rich, occur in several parts of the District, particularly in the Sihorā *tahsīl.* The iron is smelted in small furnaces by Agariās, and sold at Rs. 2–8 a maund. Owing to the imperfect methods of refining, however, 50 per cent. is lost in working it up. The iron is of excellent quality as it is smelted with charcoal, but it is believed that the deposits are not sufficiently large to repay the expenditure of capital on ironworks. Steel is made with manganese by similar methods at Johlī in Sihorā, and used locally for agricultural implements. Manganese ores occur at Gosalpur, Sihorā, Khitolā, and other villages, and mining leases have been taken out. Copper ores and argentiferous galena with traces of gold occur at Sleemanābād, and a mining lease has been obtained by a barrister of Jubbulpore. The limestone deposits of Murwāra are worked by a number of capitalists, European and native. The aggregate sales of lime in 1904 were 50,000 tons, valued at nearly 5 lakhs. About 2,500 labourers are employed, principally Kols and Gonds. The largest manufacturers of lime also own a fuller's earth quarry, the produce of which is sold to paper mills. Agate pebbles are abundant in the detritus formed by the Deccan trap, and are worked up into various articles of ornament by the local lapidaries. The true or Sulaimāni onyx is said to be sent to Cambay from Jubbulpore. There are a number of sandstone quarries in or near Murwāra, from which excellent stone is obtained and exported in the shape of posts and slabs. Chips of limestone marble are exported for the facing of walls.

Arts and manufactures. Cotton hand-weaving was formerly an important industry, but has been reduced by the competition of the mills. The principal centres are Garhā and Majholī. The coloured *sārīs* generally worn by women are still woven by hand. The best cloths and carpets are dyed after being woven, *āl* or Indian madder being used for these heavy cloths, as the foreign dyes change colour and are partly fugitive. Bijerāghogarh in Murwāra and Ramkhiriā and Indrāna in Sihorā are the principal dyeing centres. Brass and copper vessels are made at Jubbulpore, by both hammering and casting, and cups and ornaments at Panāgar. Glass bangles and the round glass flasks in which Ganges water is carried are produced at Katangī. At Tewar near the Marble Rocks various kinds of vessels of white sandstone, marble images, agate studs, and other small ornaments are made by the caste of Larhiās or stone-cutters.

Factories.

The Gokuldās Spinning and Weaving Mills, with 288 looms and 15,264 spindles, produced 10,200 cwt. of yarn and 4,798 cwt. of cloth in 1904. The mills are being enlarged by the addition of 300 looms. Only the coarser counts of yarn are woven, and the produce is sold locally. Large pottery works, started in 1892, turn out roofing and flooring tiles, bricks, and stoneware pipes, which are sold in the local market and also exported. The raw material is obtained from the large deposits of white clay formed from the limestone rocks, and the value of the produce in 1904 was 2 lakhs. A brewery, which was opened in 1897, sends beer to all parts of India. In connexion with the brewery there is an ice factory which supplies the local demand. All these factories and also a gun-carriage factory and an oil and flour mill are situated at Jubbulpore. In Murwāra eight small flour mills have been started, being worked by water power and owned by natives; and there are also paint and oil mills, worked by water power, in which chocolate-coloured paint is produced from yellow ochre and red oxide of iron. There are six printing presses in the city of Jubbulpore.

Commerce.

Wheat and oilseeds are the principal exports. Hemp (*san*) is sent to both Calcutta and Bombay for export to England. Considerable quantities of *ghī* and forest produce are dispatched from Jubbulpore, but most of this comes from Seonī and Mandlā. Hides and horns, bones, and dried beef are also largely exported. Other exports are the manufactured and mineral products already mentioned. Salt comes principally from the Sāmbhar Lake and also from Bombay and Gujarāt, sugar from the Mauritius, and *gur* (unrefined sugar) from Bihār. Kerosene oil is now universally used for lighting, vegetable oil being quite unable to compete with it. Country cloth is imported from Ahmadābād and also from the Berār and Nāgpur mills, as the local mills cannot weave cloth of any fineness. There is a considerable trade in aniline dyes, and synthetic indigo has begun to find a market within the last few years. Transparent glass bangles are now brought in large numbers from Germany. A European firm, dealing in oilseeds, wheat, and myrabolams, has most of the export trade. The rest of the traffic is managed by Bhātias from Bombay and Cutchī Muhammadans. Mārwāris act only as local brokers, and do not export grain by rail. The leading weekly markets are at Panāgar, Barelā, Shahpurā, Pātan, Katangī, Bilherī, Silondī, and Umariā. Numerous religious fairs are held at the different sacred places on the Narbadā and else-

where, but trade is important only at those of Bherāghāt and Kūmbhi.

Railways. The main line of railway from Bombay to Calcutta runs through the centre of the District with a length of 93 miles, and 9 stations are situated within its limits, including the three towns of Jubbulpore, Sihorā, and Murwāra. At Jubbulpore the Great Indian Peninsula Railway meets the East Indian. From Katnī junction the Bīna-Katnī connexion of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway branches off to Damoh and Saugor in the west, and a branch of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway leads east to Bilāspur. The Sātpurā extension of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, which connects Jubbulpore with Gondiā station, situated about 80 miles from Nāgpur towards Calcutta, has recently been completed.

Roads. From Jubbulpore a number of metalled roads lead to outlying Districts which, before the opening of the recently constructed railway lines, were important trade and military routes. These are the Jubbulpore-Damoh (63 miles), the Jubbulpore-Seonī (86 miles), and the Jubbulpore-Mandlā (58 miles) roads. Other roads leading from Jubbulpore are those to Pātan, Deorī, and Dindorī in Mandlā, of which the two latter are partly metalled, while the Pātan road is unmetalled. From the south-west of the District trade goes to Shahpurā station. The principal roads from Sihorā are towards Pātan and Majholī, and are unmetalled. A considerable amount of trade comes to Katnī from the Native States to the north, chiefly by roads from Bijerāghogarh, from Rewah through Barhī, and from Damoh. The communications in the south of the District are excellent, but those in the north are not so advanced, apart from the railways. The total length of metalled roads is 108 miles and of unmetalled roads 301 miles, and the expenditure on maintenance in 1903–4 was Rs. 67,000. More than 200 miles of the more important roads are managed by the Public Works department, and the remainder by the District council. There are avenues of trees on 74 miles.

Famine. Failures of crops occurred in Jubbulpore District from excessive winter rain in 1818–19 and from deficiency of rainfall in 1833–4, causing considerable distress. In 1868–9, the year of the Bundelkhand famine, the Murwāra *tahsīl* was severely affected, and a large decrease of population was shown at the following Census. The District then continued prosperous until 1893–4, when for three years in succession the spring crops were spoilt by excessive winter rain. The poorer classes were distressed in 1896, and some relief was necessary, while

in the following year Jubbulpore was very severely affected. Nearly 100,000 persons, or 13 per cent. of the population, were in receipt of relief in March, 1897, and the total expenditure was 19 lakhs. After two favourable seasons followed the famine of 1899–1900. The failure of crops in this was, if anything, more extensive than in 1897; but the people were in a better condition to meet it, and owing to the generous administration of relief the effect of the famine was far less marked. The numbers on relief reached 65,000, or nearly 9 per cent. of the population, in July, 1900, and the total expenditure was 9 lakhs. A number of tanks were constructed or repaired by Government agency and some field embankments were made, besides various improvements in communications.

District subdivisions and staff. The Deputy-Commissioner is aided by four Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into three *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār*, with *naib-tahsīldārs* at Sihorā and Murwarā. Jubbulpore is the head-quarters of an Executive Engineer, who is in charge of Jubbulpore, Mandlā, and Seonī Districts, of an Executive Engineer for irrigation, and of a Forest officer.

Civil and criminal justice. The civil judicial staff consists of a District and three Subordinate Judges, a Small Cause Court Judge for Jubbulpore city, and a Munsif for the Jubbulpore *tahsīl*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Jubbulpore Division has jurisdiction in the District. Crime is light, but the District is sometimes visited by professional coiners or dacoits from the neighbouring Native States.

Land revenue administration. Neither the Gond nor the Marāthā government had any fixed principles for the realization of revenue, nor were any rights in land recognized. The policy of the Marāthās was directed merely to the extortion of as much money as possible. Rents were commonly collected from the ryots direct, and when farming was practised short leases only were granted on very high rents, which sometimes amounted to more than the village 'assets.' For some years after the cession in 1818 short-term settlements were made, the demand being fixed on the first occasion at 4·18 lakhs, subsequently rising in 1825 to 6·41 lakhs. This assessment proved, however, too heavy, and in 1835 a twenty years' settlement was made and the revenue fixed at 4·76 lakhs. Under it the District prospered greatly. Revision was postponed for some years owing to the Mutiny; but in 1863 a thirty years' settlement was concluded,

at which the revenue was raised to 5·69 lakhs, including Rs. 60,000 assessed on the subsequently included estate of Bijerāghogarh. During the currency of this settlement, which almost coincided with the opening of the railway, Jubbulpore enjoyed a period of great agricultural prosperity. Cultivation increased by 35 per cent. and the price of wheat by 239 per cent., while that of other grains doubled. The income of the landholders rose by 61 per cent., mainly owing to large enhancements of the rental. The latest settlement, commenced in 1888 and completed in 1894, raised the revenue to 10 lakhs, an increase of 65 per cent. The new assessment was not excessive, and would have been easily payable; but the successive disastrous seasons, of which mention has been made, necessitated substantial reductions in the demand, and the revenue in 1903–4 had been reduced to Rs. 8,77,000. The average rental incidence per cultivated acre at settlement was Rs. 1–3–8 (maximum Rs. 3–12–1, minimum R. 0–3–1), and the revenue incidence was Rs. 0–11–11 (maximum Rs. 1–15–3, minimum R. 0–1–7). The total receipts from land revenue and all sources have been, in thousands of rupees:—

	1880–1.	1890–1.	1900–1.	1903–4.
Land revenue . .	5,73	5,78	9,16	8,67
Total revenue . .	11,41	12,76	14,87	15,03

Local boards and municipalities.

Local affairs outside municipal areas are entrusted to a District council under which are three local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The local boards have no independent income, but perform inspection duty and supervise minor improvements. The income of the District council in 1903–4 was Rs. 87,000. The expenditure was Rs. 84,000, mainly on public works (Rs. 29,000) and education (Rs. 24,000). JUBBULPORE CITY, SIHORĀ, and MURWĀRA are municipalities.

Police and jails.

The police force consists of 751 officers and men, including a special reserve of 55 men, 8 railway police, and 10 mounted constables, under a District Superintendent. There are 1,721 village watchmen for 2,298 inhabited villages. The District has a Central jail, with accommodation for 1,463 prisoners, including 150 female prisoners. The daily average number of male prisoners in 1904 was 777, and of female prisoners 32. Cloth for pillow and mattress cases, net money-bags, wire netting, and Scotch and Kidderminster carpets are made in the Central jail.

Education.

In respect of education Jubbulpore stands second among

the Districts of the Province, 5·3 per cent. of the population (10 per cent. males and 0·6 per cent. females) being able to read and write. Statistics of the number of pupils under instruction are as follows: (1880–1) 8,300; (1890–1), 9,805; (1900–1) 12,070; (1903–4) 14,141, including 1,811 girls. The educational institutions comprise an Arts college in Jubbulpore city, which also contains law and engineering classes; 3 high schools; 3 training schools for teachers; 6 English and 15 vernacular middle schools; 164 primary schools; and 2 special schools. The total expenditure on education in 1903–4 was Rs. 1,40,000, of which Rs. 16,000 was realized from fees. The percentage of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 14. Jubbulpore city also contains a Reformatory, to which youthful offenders from the whole Province are sent and taught different handicrafts. It had 125 inmates in 1904.

Hospitals and dispensaries. The District has 14 hospitals and dispensaries, with accommodation for 131 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 106,386, of whom 1,585 were in-patients, and 3,422 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 20,000, chiefly from Provincial funds. A lunatic asylum at Jubbulpore contains 178 patients.

Vaccination. Vaccination is compulsory in the municipal towns of Jubbulpore (including the cantonment), Sihorā, and Murwāra. The number of successful vaccinations in 1903–4 was 33 per 1,000 of the population of the District.

[Khān Bahādur Aulād Husain, *Settlement Report*, 1895. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Jubbulpore Tahsīl.—Southern *tahsīl* of Jubbulpore District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 49′ and 23° 32′ N. and 79° 21′ and 80° 36′ E., with an area of 1,519 square miles. The population decreased from 361,889 in 1891 to 332,488 in 1901. The density is 219 persons per square mile, which is considerably above the District average. The *tahsīl* contains one town, JUBBULPORE CITY (population, 90,316), the head-quarters of the District and *tahsīl*, and 1,076 inhabited villages. Excluding 113 square miles of Government forest, 63 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 799 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 4,54,000, and for cesses Rs. 51,000. The *tahsīl* contains part of the highly fertile wheat-growing tract known as the Jubbulpore Havelī on the west, some good but uneven land lying east of the railway, and some hill and forest country to the east towards Kundam and Baghrāji and also on the southern border.

Sihorā Tahsīl.—Central *tahsīl* of Jubbulpore District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 19′ and 23° 55′ N. and 79° 49′ and 80° 38′ E., with an area of 1,197 square miles. The population decreased from 212,949 in 1891 to 186,424 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 156 persons per square mile, which is below the District average. The *tahsīl* contains one town, SIHORĀ (population, 5,595), the head-quarters, and 706 inhabited villages. Excluding 96 square miles of Government forest, 55 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 563 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 2,87,000, and for cesses Rs. 32,000. The *tahsīl* contains part of the highly fertile wheat-growing tract known as the Jubbulpore Havelī, though in Sihorā the land is not quite so level or productive as in the Jubbulpore *tahsīl*. On the west and east broken and hilly country borders the Vindhyan and Sātpurā ranges.

Murwāra Tahsīl.—Northern *tahsīl* of Jubbulpore District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 36′ and 24° 8′ N. and 79° 58′ and 80° 58′ E., with an area of 1,196 square miles. The population decreased from 173,308 in 1891 to 161,673 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 135 persons per square mile, which is considerably below the District average. The *tahsīl* contains one town, MURWĀRA (population, 14,137), the head-quarters, and 516 inhabited villages. Excluding 137 square miles of Government forest, 66 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 607 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,29,000, and for cesses Rs. 14,000. The country is broken and uneven, being occupied by outlying spurs of the Vindhyan and Sātpurā ranges. The north-eastern portion, forming part of the Bijerāghogarh *pargana*, is the most fertile. In contradistinction to the rest of the District, the prevalent soil is sandy, and autumn crops are principally grown.

Descriptive.

Jubbulpore City.—Head-quarters of the Division, District, and *tahsīl* of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 10′ N. and 79° 57′ E., 616 miles from Bombay by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and 784 miles from Calcutta by the East Indian, the two lines meeting at the town. A branch narrow-gauge railway has recently been opened to Gondiā, 117 miles distant, on the Bengal-Nāgpur system. The city stands in a rocky basin surrounded by low hills, and about 6 miles from the Narbadā river. The gorge of the

Narbadā at Bherāghāt, where the river passes through the well-known MARBLE ROCKS, is 13 miles distant. Jubbulpore is well laid out, with broad and regular streets, and numerous tanks and gardens have been constructed in the environs. Its elevation is 1,306 feet above sea-level. The climate is comparatively cool, and Jubbulpore is generally considered the most desirable of the plain stations in the Central Provinces, of which it ranks as the second city. It is steadily increasing in importance, the population at the last four enumerations having been: (1872) 55,188; (1881) 75,075; (1891) 84,481; (1901) 90,316. Of the population in 1901, 63,997 were Hindus, 21,036 Muhammadans, and 3,432 Christians, of whom 2,000 were Europeans and Eurasians. Four miles to the west of the town, and included in the municipality, is Garhā, once the capital of the Gond dynasty of Garhā-Mandlā, whose ancient keep, known as the Madan Mahal, still crowns a low granite range with the old town lying beneath it. This was constructed about 1100 by Madan Singh, and is now in ruins. It is a small building of no architectural pretensions, and its only interest lies in its picturesque position, perched upon the top of the hill on a huge boulder of rock. In the sixteenth century the capital was removed to Mandlā, and the importance of Garhā declined. Of the history of Jubbulpore itself nothing is known until it was selected by the Marāthās as their head-quarters on the annexation of Mandlā in 1781. In an old inscription now in the Nāgpur Museum the name is given as Javalipatna. Jubbulpore subsequently became the head-quarters of the Commissioner of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, which were merged in the Central Provinces in 1861.

Municipal undertakings.

A municipality was constituted in 1864. The municipal receipts and expenditure during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 2,62,000 and Rs. 2,57,000 respectively. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 3,54,000, the main sources being octroi (Rs. 1,65,000) and water rate (Rs. 29,000); and the total expenditure was Rs. 2,38,000, including refunds (Rs. 56,000), conservancy (Rs. 34,000), repayment of loans (Rs. 28,000), general administration and collection of taxes (Rs. 21,000), and water-supply (Rs. 13,000). Previous to the construction of the existing water-works, the town depended for its supply on a number of unreliable wells, and it was not uncommon for water to be retailed in the hot season at one or two annas a pot. The water-works were opened in 1883, and extended to the cantonment and the civil station in 1894.

They consist of a reservoir constructed on the Khandāri stream, about seven miles from the city. The masonry embankment is 1,680 feet long and 66 feet high, and the catchment area of the reservoir is $5\frac{1}{4}$ square miles. Water is conveyed to the city in pipes by gravitation. The total cost of the works was 9·4 lakhs, including the extension. The effect of the constant intake of water in a city whose situation does not provide good natural drainage has, however, been to render the ground somewhat sodden, and a drainage scheme to counteract this tendency is under consideration.

Cantonment. The town includes a cantonment with a population of 13,157. The receipts and expenditure of the cantonment fund during the decade ending 1901 averaged about Rs. 25,000, and in 1903-4 they amounted to Rs. 32,000. The ordinary garrison has hitherto consisted of one battalion of British and one of native infantry, a squadron of native cavalry, and two field batteries; but it is proposed to increase it. There are also two companies of railway volunteers, and one of the Nāgpur Volunteer Rifles. Jubbulpore is the head-quarters of a general officer, and the garrison is included in the Mhow division. A central gun-carriage factory for India was opened in 1905. A Government grass farm, combined with a military dairy, has also been established.

Trade. Jubbulpore is an important commercial and industrial town. It receives the grain and other produce of the greater part of Jubbulpore District, and of portions of Seonī and Mandlā. The factories include spinning and weaving mills, pottery works, a brewery and ice-factory, oil and flour mills, the workshops of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and four hydraulic presses for *san*-hemp. The local handicrafts are cloth-weaving, brass-working, stone-cutting, and the manufacture of images from marble, and of studs, buttons, and other ornaments from agate pebbles. Till lately a considerable tent-making industry was carried on, at first by the Thags, who were kept in confinement here, and their descendants, and afterwards at a Reformatory school; but this has now ceased. There are six printing presses, with English, Hindī, and Urdū type; and an English weekly and a Hindī paper are published.

Officials and public institutions. Jubbulpore is the head-quarters not only of the ordinary District staff, but of the Commissioner and Divisional Judge of the Jubbulpore Division, a Conservator of Forests, a Superintending and an Irrigation Engineer, the Superintendent of Telegraphs for the Central Provinces, and an Inspector of Schools. One of the three Central jails and one of the

two lunatic asylums in the Province are located here. The industries carried on in the Central jail include the weaving of cloth for pillow and mattress cases, and of net money-bags, the manufacture of wire netting for local use, and of thick bedding cloth and Scotch and Kidderminster carpets for sale. Fifty-five looms were employed in making carpets in 1903-4. The Church Missionary Society, the Zanāna Mission, and the Roman Catholic, Wesleyan, and American Methodist Churches have mission stations in Jubbulpore, and support several orphanages and schools. A Government Arts college affiliated to the Allahābād University, with law and engineering classes attached to it, had 114 students in 1903-4. There are also three high schools, one maintained by the Church Missionary Society with seventy-nine pupils, one by a Muhammadan society with eight pupils, and one by a Hindu society with eighty-seven pupils, training institutions for male and female teachers, and fifty-three other schools. Schools for European boys and girls are maintained by the Church Missionary Society and the Roman Catholic Mission, with the assistance of Government grants. There is also a Reformatory, to which youthful offenders from the whole Province are sent and taught different handicrafts. It contains 125 inmates, and is the successor of the old school for the children of Thags arrested in the Central Provinces. Jubbulpore contains a general hospital, the Lady Elgin hospital for women, three dispensaries, and a veterinary dispensary.

Katnī.—Railway junction in the Murwāra *tahsīl* of Jubbulpore District, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 50′ N. and 80° 24′ E. on the East Indian Railway, 673 miles from Bombay and 727 from Calcutta, adjoining the town of MURWĀRA. It is connected with Bilāspur on the main line of the Bengal-Nāgpur system by a link of 198 miles, and with Bīna on the Midland section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Itārsi to Agra by one of 163 miles. These two connecting lines may eventually form part of the through route from Calcutta to Karāchi.

Marble Rocks.—The well-known gorge of the Narbadā river, situated 23° 8′ N. and 79° 48′ E. near the village of Bherāghāt, in Jubbulpore District, Central Provinces, 13 miles from Jubbulpore city by road, and 3 miles from Mīrganj station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The river here winds in a deep narrow stream through rocks of magnesian limestone 100 feet high, giving an extremely picturesque effect, especially by moonlight. One place where the rocks

approach very closely is called the Monkey's Leap. Indra is said to have made this channel for the waters of the pent-up stream, and the footprints left on the rock by the elephant of the god still receive adoration. The greatest height of the rocks above water level is 105 feet, and the depth of water at the same place 48 feet, but the basin near the travellers' bungalow is 169 feet deep. On a hill beside the river are some curious remains of statuary. A modern temple is surrounded by a high circular wall of much more ancient date, against the inside of which is built a veranda supported by columns set at regular intervals. The pilasters built against the wall opposite each of the pillars divide the wall space into panels, and in each of these on a pedestal is a life-sized image of a god, goddess, &c., for the most part in a very mutilated condition. Most of the figures are four-armed goddesses, and the name of the temple is the Chaunsath Joginī or 'sixty-four female devotees.' The statues have symbols in the shape of various animals carved on their pedestals. Bherāghāt is sacred as the junction of the Narbadā with the little stream of the Saraswatī; and a large religious fair takes place here in November for bathing in the Narbadā, the attendance on the principal day being about 40,000. The marble obtained from these rocks is coarse-grained and suitable only for building stone. It is very hard and chips easily, and is therefore not well adapted for statuary. The colours found are canary, pink, white, grey, and black. Soapstone or French chalk is found in pockets in the bed of the Narbadā.

Murwāra Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name in Jubbulpore District, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 50′ N. and 80° 24′ E., 56 miles from Jubbulpore city by rail. The station for Murwāra is Katnī junction, so called from the river Katnī on which the town stands. Population (1901), 14,137. The town is rapidly growing in importance, and is one of the leading goods-stations on the East Indian Railway. Murwāra was created a municipality in 1874. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 9,100. In 1903-4 the receipts were Rs. 10,000, chiefly derived from a house tax and brokers' fees. Sixteen lime factories are situated near Murwāra, in which the large local deposits of limestone are burned, employing some 2,500 labourers. Besides, a number of sandstone quarries and a fuller's earth quarry are worked, and mills have been established for the manufacture of paint. These, as well as eight small flour mills, are worked by water-power from the Katnī

river. The town contains an English middle school and Zanāna Mission girls' school, besides branch schools and a dispensary.

Sihorā Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name in Jubbulpore District, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 29′ N. and 80° 6′ E., 26 miles from Jubbulpore city by rail. Population (1901), 5,595. Sihorā was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 5,100. In 1903-4 the receipts were Rs. 5,000, mainly derived from a house tax and brokers' fees. The iron ore found locally is smelted by indigenous methods in Sihorā, and there is a certain amount of local trade, but the town is not growing. It contains a vernacular middle school, a girls' school supported by the Zanāna Mission of the Church of England, and a dispensary.

Mandlā District.—District in the Jubbulpore Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 12′ and 23° 23′ N. and 79° 58′ and 81° 45′ E., with an area of 5,054 square miles. Mandlā is the most easterly of the Sātpurā plateau Districts, and occupies a stretch of wild, hilly country forming part of the main eastern range of the Sātpurā Hills, and culminating in the plateau of Amarkantak just beyond the border in Rewah. It is bounded on the north-west by Jubbulpore District; on the north-east by the State of Rewah; on the south and south-west by Bālāghāt and Seonī; and on the south-east by Bilāspur District and the State of Kawardhā. The Narbadā river, rising at Amarkantak, flows first to the north-west separating Mandlā from Rewah, and then turning to the west crosses the District and curves tortuously through the central range of hills. When rather more than half-way across, it makes a sudden bend to the south, thrown back by a long spur running out from the central range as far as Mandlā town, and after almost enclosing the town in a loop, again turns and flows north and north-west to Jubbulpore, bounding the District for some distance on its western border. The Narbadā is the centre of the drainage system, and during its passage through the District receives the waters of numerous tributary streams from the south and north. The larger and richer portion of Mandlā lies south of the Narbadā, and consists of a succession of hill ranges running down to the river, and separated by the valleys of a number of its affluents. The principal of these are the valley of the Banjār on the west, those of the Burhner and its tributaries in the centre, and those of the Kharmer and a number of smaller streams to the

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

east. The valley of the Banjār contains the best cultivated tract in the District, called the Haveli, which extends on both sides of the river for some miles south of its junction with the Narbadā at Mandlā. South of the Haveli the Banjār valley is covered with forest. This is the lowest part of the District, and has an elevation of about 1,500 feet. East of the Banjār runs a lofty range of hills approaching the Narbadā at Rāmnagar, and separating the valley or plateau of the Banjār from that of the Hālon and Burhner, which is 500 feet higher. To the north this plateau is much cut up by hills, with small and fertile valleys lying between them; but in the south there are large expanses of good black soil, watered by perennial streams, and covered over large areas with magnificent *sāl* forests (*Shorea robusta*). Still farther east lies the third plateau of Raigarh, at an elevation of about 2,700 feet. This consists for the most part of an open cultivable plain, but is very sparsely populated and covered all through the hot season with an abundance of thick green grass, which makes it a well-known grazing ground. The rivers, even in the hottest months, never quite dry up; and the numerous natural springs render wells unnecessary. The hills here are flat-topped, sometimes forming small plateaux of a few square miles in extent. Amarkantak, across the border, which is the most important of these, has an elevation of 3,400 feet, while Chaurādādar within the District is of about the same height. North of the Narbadā the hills become more rugged and inaccessible, and extend over most of the country. The valleys are small and scattered, though some of them are extremely fertile.

Geology. The geology of Mandlā presents but little variety, as except on the southern and eastern borders nearly the whole surface is covered by trap. In the south the formation of the tract on both sides of the Bānjar to within a short distance of its junction with the Narbadā consists of crystalline rocks; but they are not exposed over any wide area. East of the Banjār valley, though granite, syenite, and limestone frequently appear on the banks of streams and form the sides of hills, yet almost everywhere, even on the tops of the highest peaks, trap is the uppermost rock, and sometimes the trap itself is covered by laterite.

Botany. *Sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) is the most important timber tree of the District and occupies the higher hillsides. The forests on lower levels are of the mixed type common in the Central Provinces, teak and bamboos being the most important

trees. Other common trees are *harrā* (*Terminalia Chebula*), *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *tendū* (*Diospyros tomentosa*), *kusumb* (*Schleichera trijuga*), *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*), and *dhaurā* (*Anogeissus latifolia*).

Game is still plentiful in most of the District forests, especially in the central and southern regions. Towards the east it has been almost exterminated in many tracts by the snares and poisoned arrows of the Baigās. Bison are found in most of the forests, and these animals are now being carefully preserved; but they are nowhere very numerous, as they appear to suffer periodically from epidemics of cow-pox, with which they are doubtless infected by tame cattle grazing in the forests. The wild buffalo is not now met with, though it must at one time have been common, and it has been shot in the Phen valley within the last fifteen or twenty years. The deer tribe is well represented. The *bārāsinghā* or swamp deer is found in large herds in the *sāl* forests. *Sāmbar*, spotted, and barking deer are common, and the mouse deer is also found. *Nīlgai* and antelope are frequently seen in the open plains, but *chinkāra* or ravine deer are somewhat rare. Tigers, leopards, and bears are found in all the forests. The numerous packs of wild dogs are very destructive to game. Partridges and quail are fairly common, but water birds are not numerous, as there are very few tanks. Mahseer and other kinds of fish are found in the Narbadā, but seldom attain to full size. Fauna.

The climate is cool and pleasant. December and January are the coldest months, and occasional frosts occur. On the higher plateaux ice is by no means rare. Malarial fever of a somewhat virulent type is prevalent during the monsoon and autumn months. Climate.

The annual rainfall averages 52 inches. Hailstorms not infrequently occur in the winter months and do serious damage to the crops, and thunderstorms are common in the hot season. Rainfall.

The Gond Rājput dynasty of Garhā-Mandlā commenced, according to an inscription in the palace of Rāmnagar, in the fifth century, with the accession of Jādho Rai, a Rājput adventurer who entered the service of an old Gond king, married his daughter, and succeeded him on the throne. Cunningham places the date two centuries later, in 664. The original seat of the dynasty is supposed to have been Garhā near Jubbulpore, but this theory is discredited by the fact that the Kalachuri Rājput dynasty was in power here History.

as late as the twelfth century. In any case the Garhā-Mandlā kingdom was a petty local chiefship until the accession of Sangrām Sāh, the forty-seventh king, in 1480. This prince extended his dominions over the Narbadā valley, and possibly Bhopāl, Saugor, and Damoh, and most of the Sātpurā hill country, and left fifty-two forts or districts to his son. The control of the Garhā-Mandlā kings over their extended principality was, however, short-lived, for in 1564 Asaf Khān, the imperial viceroy, invaded their territories. The queen Durgāvati, then acting as regent for her infant son, met him near the fort of Singorgarh in Damoh; but being defeated, she retired past Garhā towards Mandlā, and took up a strong position in a narrow defile. Here, mounted on an elephant, she bravely headed her troops in the defence of the pass, and notwithstanding that she had received an arrow-wound in her eye refused to retire. But by an extraordinary coincidence the river in the rear of her position, which had been nearly dry a few hours before the action commenced, began suddenly to rise and soon became unfordable. Finding her plan of retreat thus frustrated, and seeing her troops give way, the queen snatched a dagger from her elephant-driver and plunged it into her breast. Asaf Khān acquired an immense booty, including, it is said, more than a thousand elephants. From this time the fortunes of the Mandlā kingdom rapidly declined. The districts afterwards formed into the State of Bhopāl were ceded to the emperor Akbar, to obtain his recognition of the next Rājā, Chandra Sāh. In the time of Chandra Sāh's grandson Prem Nārāyan, the Bundelās invaded Narsinghpur and stormed the castle of Chaurāgarh. During the succeeding reigns family quarrels led the rival parties to solicit foreign intervention in support of their pretensions, and for this a price had always to be paid. Part of Saugor was ceded to the Mughal emperor, the south of Saugor and Damoh to Chhatarsāl Rājā of Pannā, and Seonī to the Gond Rājā of Deogarh. In 1742 the Peshwā invaded Mandlā, and this was followed by the exaction of *chauth*. The Bhonslas of Nāgpur annexed the territories now constituting Bālāghāt and part of Bhandāra. Finally, in 1781, the last king of the Gond-Rājput line was deposed, and Mandlā was annexed to the Marāthā government of Saugor, then under the control of the Peshwā. At some period of the Gond kingdom the District must have been comparatively well populated, as numerous remains of villages can be observed in land now covered by forest; but

one of the Saugor rulers, Vāsudeo Pandit, is said to have extorted several lakhs of rupees from the people in eighteen months by unbridled oppression, and to have left it ruined and depopulated. In 1799 Mandlā was appropriated by the Bhonsla Rājās of Nāgpur, in accordance with a treaty concluded some years previously with the Peshwā; and during the period of eighteen years which followed, the District was repeatedly overrun by the Pindāris, who, however, did not succeed in taking the town of Mandlā. In 1818 Mandlā became British territory; and as the Marāthā garrison in the fort refused to surrender, a force under General Marshall took it by assault. The peace of the District was not subsequently disturbed, except for a brief period during the Mutiny of 1857, when the chiefs of Rāmgarh, Shahpurā, and Sohāgpur joined the mutineers, taking with them their Gond retainers, who, though not really disaffected, followed their chiefs with their usual unquestioning faithfulness. Order was restored early in 1858, and the estates of Rāmgarh and Shahpurā were subsequently confiscated, while Sohāgpur was made over to Rewah. The last representative of the Gond Rājput kings, Shankar Sāh, had retired to Jubbulpore, where he held an estate of a few villages. During the Mutiny he attempted to raise a party in Jubbulpore, then in a very disturbed condition, with a view to rebellion. On being captured and convicted, he and his son were blown away from guns.

Archaeology. The District contains few notable buildings. Deogaon, at the junction of the Narbadā and Burhner, 20 miles north-east of Mandlā, has an old temple. At Kukarrāmath, 12 miles from Dindorī, are the remains of numerous temples, most of which have been excavated and carried away to make the buildings at Dindorī. The palace of the Gond Rājās of Garhā-Mandlā, built in 1663, is situated at Rāmnagar, about 10 miles east of Mandlā on the south bank of the Narbadā, and is in a fairly good state of preservation but of little architectural merit. There are numerous other ruins, as Rāmnagar remained the seat of government for eight reigns.

The people. The population of the District in the last three years of census was as follows: (1881) 300,659; (1891) 339,341; (1901) 317,250. The increase between 1881 and 1891, of 13 per cent., was attributed partly to the increased accuracy of the Census. During the last decade the decrease was 6½ per cent., chiefly in the Mandlā *tahsīl*. The District

was severely affected by famine in 1897, and there was great mortality among the forest tribes. The figures of population given below have been adjusted on account of transfers of territory since the Census of 1901:—

Tahsil.	Area in square miles.	Number of		Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
		Towns.	Villages.				
Mandlā . .	2,530	1	980	178,771	70	− 8·4	4,154
Dindorī . .	2,524	...	854	139,629	55	− 3·9	1,812
District total	5,054	1	1,834	318,400	63	− 6·5	5,966

In 1904 an area of 15 square miles with 11 villages containing 1,150 persons was transferred from Bālāghāt to Mandlā, and 5 square miles of Government forest from Mandlā to Bālāghāt. The corrected District totals of area and population are 5,054 square miles and 318,400 persons. The density of population is 63 persons per square mile, which is smaller than that of any District in the Province with the exception of Chānda. The District contains one town, MANDLĀ, the head-quarters, and 1,834 inhabited villages. The villages are usually very small, the average number of persons to each being only 174. The figures of religion show that 121,000 persons, or 38 per cent. of the population, are Hindus, and 191,000, or 60 per cent., Animists. Practically all the forest tribes are returned as still professing their own religion. Muhammadans number only 5,000. Nearly 75 per cent. of the population speak the Baghelī dialect of Eastern Hindī and nearly 25 per cent. Gondī. The former dialect is spoken in the Central Provinces only in Jubbulpore and Mandlā, and resembles Chhattīsgarhi in many respects. About half of the Gonds speak their own language and the other half a corrupt Hindī, which is also the language of the Baigās and Kols.

Their castes and occupations.

The principal landholding castes are Brāhmans (7,000), Kalārs, Gonds, Lodhīs (5,000), Baniās, and Kāyasths. Next to Gonds the most important castes numerically are Ahīrs (23,000), Pankās (14,000), and Telis (10,000). The Kalārs were money-lenders to the Gonds before the advent of the Baniā. The Lodhīs were formerly the chief landholding caste and possessed several fine estates. The Gonds number 160,000, or just half of the population. They are lazy cultivators, and favour the small millets *kodon* and *kutkī*, which in new soil

yield a large return with a minimum of exertion. The Baigās number about 14,000. They are probably the first residents of the District; and a Baigā is always the village priest and magician, on account of the more intimate and long-standing acquaintance he is supposed to possess with the local deities. The Baigās have always practised *bewar* or shifting cultivation in patches of forest, manured by burning the timber which has been cut down on it. When they were debarred from continuing this destructive method in Government forests, a reserve of 24,000 acres was allotted to them for this purpose, in which there are still a few villages. Most of them have now, however, taken to cultivation in the ordinary manner. Until recently the Baigā considered that hunting was the only dignified occupation for a man, and left as much as possible of the work of cultivation to his womenkind. About 83 per cent. of the population of the District are dependent on agriculture.

Christian missions.

Of the 560 Christians, 536 are natives, and most of these belong to the Church Missionary Society, which has stations at Mandlā and four other villages. There are a number of European missionaries, and the institutions supported include schools at all the stations and two dispensaries.

General agricultural conditions.

The varieties of soil are mainly those formed by the decomposition of basalt rock, though in the south, and especially on the high south-eastern plateau, areas of sandy soil occur. Black soil is generally found only in patches in low-lying valleys; but owing to the fact that the total area under cultivation is so small, it furnishes a higher proportion of the whole than in most Districts. The remaining land consists mainly of the shallow stony soil in which only the minor autumn crops are grown. Much of the forest stands on good cultivable soil, and although the land newly broken up in the last thirty years is generally of the poorer varieties, still the expansion of cultivation is far from having reached its limit. About 31 per cent. of the area occupied is uncultivated, resting fallows being essential in the absence of any artificial stimulus to allow the poorer land to recuperate. Wheat is sown in embanked fields in the tract round Mandlā and in open fields in the villages to the south-west, where the ground is too uneven and the soil not sufficiently adhesive to allow of embankments.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

About 800 square miles, formerly Government forest, are in process of settlement on *ryotwāri* tenure, while 10,000 acres are held wholly or partially free of revenue, and 33 square miles have been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules.

The balance is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The following table gives the leading statistics of cultivation in 1903–4, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Mandlā . .	2,537	608	5	731	906
Dindorī . .	2,524	682	...	674	942
Total	5,061	1,290	5	1,405	1,848

Wheat covers 164 square miles or 13 per cent. of the cropped area, rice 173 square miles or 17 per cent., the oilseeds *til* and *jagnī* 145 square miles, and the small millets *kodon* and *kutkī* 444 square miles. The main feature of recent statistics is the decline in the popularity of wheat, and the increase in that of almost every other crop, as a result of the succession of unfavourable wheat harvests. But in the twenty years previous to the summary settlement of 1890, the area under wheat had more than doubled, while that of rice had increased by nearly 50 per cent.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

The method of rice cultivation is peculiar, the young shoots being ploughed up as soon as they appear above the ground. Those which are ploughed or trodden well into the ground subsequently take root more strongly, while those left exposed on the surface die off and the crop is thus thinned. Little rice is transplanted. The practice of raising two crops in the embanked wheat-fields has grown up in the last thirty years, and second crops are now normally grown on about 80 square miles. Manure is applied to this area. Considerable quantities of waste or forest land have in recent years been allotted for cultivation on the *ryotwāri* tenure, the area so taken up amounting to 217 square miles, on which a revenue of Rs. 57,000 is paid. Practically no loans have been taken under the Land Improvement Act, while between 1894 and 1904 1·25 lakhs was advanced under the Agriculturists' Loans Act.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

The cattle used are bred locally. They are small and weak, no care being exercised in breeding, though Mandlā has every facility for the production of an excellent class of bullocks. Those raised on the Raigarh and Rāmgarh plateaux are the best. Buffaloes are not generally used for cultivation, but they are bred, and the cows kept for the manufacture of *ghī*, the young bulls being sold in Chhattīsgarh. The upper classes generally keep a small pony of the usual type for riding, as

carts cannot travel except on three or four main roads and in the Havelī during the open season. Ponies and bullocks are also largely used for pack carriage. There are very few goats or sheep.

Irrigation is insignificant, being applied only to sugar-cane, which covers about 500 acres, and to vegetable and garden crops, including the betel-vine gardens, of which there are many round Mandlā. The sandy soil of the south and south-east would, however, repay irrigation. Considerable stretches of sandy or *kachhār* land are exposed on the banks of the Narbadā, which are flooded every year by the river, and fertilized by a deposit of silt; and on these vegetables and tobacco are raised. Irrigation.

Government forests cover an area of 1,848 square miles, distributed all over the District, though the most valuable are in the south and south-east. About 854 miles, not included in this area, have lately been demarcated for disforestation and agricultural settlement. The most important tree is the *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), which forms almost pure forests, occupying the whole of the eastern portion of the District, as well as a fringe of varying depth along the northern and southern boundaries. It is found in the south in the forests known as the Banjār and Phen Reserves, where specimens 100 feet in height and 10 feet in girth are not uncommon. The western and central portions of the District contain the ordinary type of mixed forest common all over the Central Provinces. Teak is not very plentiful and does not attain large dimensions. Bamboos, which are very numerous in these mixed forests, are their most generally useful and valuable product. Owing to the heavy rainfall, the *sāl* forests in the east of the District are watered by running streams, and are widely known as grazing grounds for cattle, large herds being brought to them annually from all parts of the Province for the hot season. Among the minor products of the forests the most important is the myrabolam. In an exceptionally favourable year the Government forests of the District have been known to yield more than 1,000 tons of this commodity. Other minor products include lac, resin from the *sāl* tree, *tīkhur*, and a species of arrowroot. The forest revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 1,42,000, of which about Rs. 44,000 was realized from sales of timber and Rs. 47,000 from grazing. Forests.

Extensive iron-ore deposits occur in the District, and are quarried and smelted by Agariās or Gond iron-workers. The industry does not flourish, as their methods are very primitive Minerals.

and they find it difficult to compete with imported iron. The furnaces used are so small that each smelting does not yield more than 2 lb. of refined iron. Only 34 tons of iron were produced in 1904. Manganese is reported to have been found within three miles of Mandlā at Sahasradhāra. Limestone of good quality is common in many parts of the District, but is only quarried in small quantities to meet local requirements.

Arts and manufactures.

Coarse cotton cloth is produced in most of the larger villages, but no fine material is woven except by a few families of Koshtās in Mandlā town. Machine-made cloth is now worn, even in the interior, except by the forest tribes. Other classes of agriculturists usually wear hand-woven loin-cloths, and coats of cloth from the mills. The vessels manufactured from bell-metal at Mandlā are well-known locally. Glass bangles are made at Itkā near Nainpur, and lac bangles at Mandlā, Bamhnī, and Hirdenagar. The most important bazar or weekly market is at Pindrai on the western border towards Seonī, which is both a cattle and grain market, and a centre for the disposal of local produce and the purchase of imported commodities. The other large bazars are at Mandlā, Bamhnī, and Newāri in the Mandlā *tahsīl*, and at Kukarrāmath in the Dindorī *tahsīl*. Two important annual fairs are held: at Hirdenagar situated at the junction of the Banjār with the Matiāri, and at Madhpurī on the Narbadā about eight miles east of Mandlā.

Commerce.

Wheat, rice, oilseeds, *san*-hemp, and *ghī* are the staple exports. From the forests a large quantity of *sāl* timber and a little teak are sent, and also lac and myrabolams. Bombay sea-salt and Mauritius sugar come through Jubbulpore. Kerosene oil is generally used for lighting. *Gur* is imported from Cawnpore, and in spite of the cost of carriage can undersell that made locally. The pulse *arhar* is not produced in Mandlā and is imported for consumption, as well as turmeric and all other condiments and spices. Vessels of brass are brought from Mirzāpur and of bell-metal from Umrer. Silk and cotton cloth comes principally from Nāgpur. Agarwāl and Gahoī Baniās conduct the general trade of the District, and Punjābi Muhammadans the timber trade.

Railways and roads.

The Gondiā-Jubbulpore branch of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, completed in 1905, passes through a small strip of the District on the south-western border, and has two stations, Nainpur and Pindrai, within the District. It is in contemplation to construct a branch line from Nainpur to Mandlā, a distance of about 22 miles by the direct route. At present most of the trade from the west of the District is with Jubbul-

pore along the only existing metalled road. An alternative route to Jubbulpore through Pindrai attracts some traffic, on account of the importance of the Pindrai weekly market. From Dindorī, 64 miles to the east of Mandlā, there is an embanked road to Jubbulpore, which affords an outlet from the north-west. Dindorī is also connected with Birsinghpur and Pendrā stations on the Katnī-Bilāspur branch of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. Carriage has hitherto generally been by pack-animals, except on the main routes. The District has 48 miles of metalled and 233 miles of unmetalled roads, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 35,000. With the exception of 7 miles kept up by the District council, all roads are maintained by the Public Works department. Only 13 miles of avenues of trees are shown in the returns.

Famine.

Mandlā suffered from distress or famine in 1818-9, 1823-7, and 1833-4. On the first occasion the autumn rains were short, and excessive rain fell during the winter months. From 1823 to 1827 a succession of short crops was experienced, due to floods, hail, and blight, which caused the desertion of many villages. In 1833-4 the autumn rains failed, and the spring crops could not be sown owing to the hardness of the ground, caused by the premature cessation of the rains. Rice was imported from Chhattīsgarh by Government agency, but no further details are known regarding these famines. In the general famine of 1868-9 Mandlā was only slightly affected, as the *kodon* crop on which the poorest of the population depend was fairly successful, and no general relief was necessary. When the famine of 1896-7 came upon the District, Mandlā had already suffered from a succession of poor crops for three years. The autumn harvest of 1896 was a total failure, and distress was very severe, especially among the forest tribes, who were inclined to view with suspicion the efforts made by Government to keep them alive. Relief operations had commenced in June, 1896, on account of the previous bad harvests, and they lasted until the end of 1897. The maximum number on relief was 37,000 persons or 11 per cent. of the population in September, 1897, and the total expenditure on relief was 7·5 lakhs. In 1899-1900 Mandlā was not severely affected.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner is aided by one Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner. For administrative purposes the District is divided into two *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The Forest officer is generally a member of the Imperial service. The Executive Engineer at Jubbulpore is also in charge of Mandlā.

Civil and criminal justice.

The judicial staff consists of a Subordinate Judge who is also District Judge, and a Munsif at Mandlā. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Jubbulpore Division has jurisdiction in Mandlā. The civil litigation is petty and the crime extremely light, the commonest class of cases being contraventions of the Excise Act by the illicit manufacture of liquor.

Land revenue administration.

Mandlā is stated to have paid at one time a very high revenue to its Gond rulers, but when it first came under British control it had undergone an interlude of Marāthā maladministration in its worst form. No records of the earlier governments remain, but at the date of the cession in 1818 the revenue paid to the Marāthās is believed to have been Rs. 40,000. Under the Marāthās the revenue was settled annually with the village headmen, who were allowed to retain one-seventh part of it. No rights in land were recognized, but the headmen and tenants were not usually ejected except for default. Numerous miscellaneous taxes were also imposed, the realizations from which are said to have exceeded the ordinary land revenue. One of these was the sale of widows, who were looked on as government property, and sold according to a sliding scale varying with their age and accomplishments, the highest price being Rs. 1,000. The revenue raised in the first annual settlement after the cession was Rs. 36,000; and subsequent efforts to increase this having resulted in further impoverishing the District, in 1837 a twenty years' settlement was made for Rs. 27,000. On its expiry the District was summarily assessed for a few years until the completion of the twenty years' settlement of 1868, when the revenue was fixed at Rs. 62,000, or an increase of more than 48 per cent. on the previous demand. On this occasion a cadastral survey was undertaken, and proprietary rights were conferred on the village headmen. The twenty years' settlement expired in 1888, and the District was then summarily assessed for a period of fourteen to fifteen years pending the undertaking of a regular cadastral survey. A very large increase in agricultural prosperity had taken place during the currency of the previous assessment, and the price of grain had more than doubled. At revision the land revenue was raised to Rs. 1,08,000, an increase of 64 per cent. on the former demand, but falling at less than $3\frac{1}{2}$ annas per cultivated acre. The District is now again under settlement, the previous term having expired, while a new cadastral survey has also been completed. The following table shows the receipts of revenue from land and from all sources: —

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue . .	90	1,48	1,69	1,78
Total revenue . .	2,46	4,20	3,15	4,64

Local boards and municipalities.

Mandlā has no District council, and Local funds are administered by the Deputy-Commissioner, the income from these in 1903-4 being Rs. 31,000. MANDLĀ TOWN is a municipality.

Police and jails.

The police force consists of 311 officers and men, with 3 mounted constables, under a District Superintendent, besides 1,043 village watchmen for 1,834 inhabited towns and villages. Mandlā town has a District jail with accommodation for 85 prisoners, including 8 females, the daily average number in 1904 being 69.

Education.

In respect of education the District stands fifteenth in the Province, 3·7 per cent. of the male population being able to read and write in 1901, while only 203 females were returned as literate. The percentage of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 8. Statistics of the number of pupils are as follows: (1880-1) 949; (1890-1) 1,767; (1900-1) 2,586; (1903-4) 3,873, including 283 girls. The educational institutions comprise an English middle school, 3 vernacular middle schools, and 56 primary schools. Mission schools for male and female orphans are maintained at Patparā. The expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 18,000, of which Rs. 13,500 was provided from Provincial and Local funds, and Rs. 1,400 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries.

The District has 6 dispensaries, with accommodation for 52 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 25,108, of whom 428 were in-patients, and 352 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 4,000, mainly derived from Provincial and Local funds.

Vaccination.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipality of Mandlā. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903-4 was 64 per 1,000 of the District population, this result being very favourable.

[J. B. Fuller, *Report on the Summary Settlement*, 1894. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Mandlā Tahsīl.—Southern *tahsīl* of Mandlā District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 12′ and 23° 9′ N. and 79° 58′ and 81° 12′ E., with an area of 2,537 square miles. Population decreased from 193,928 in 1891 to 177,621 in 1901. The area and population have been slightly altered since the Census

of 1901 by the transfer of territory to and from Bālāghāt District, and the adjusted figures are 2,530 square miles and 178,771 persons. The density is 70 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, MANDLĀ (population, 5,428), the *tahsīl* and District head-quarters, and 980 inhabited villages. Excluding 906 square miles of Government forest, 44 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 608 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 90,000, and for cesses Rs. 14,000. The *tahsīl* contains some open tracts of good land on the south-west, while the rest of it consists of a number of small and fertile valleys separated by hill ranges and forests. The eastern plateaux are covered by nutritious grass, and form a well-known grazing area for cattle in the summer months.

Dindorī.—Northern *tahsīl* of Mandlā District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 26′ and 23° 23′ N. and 80° 20′ and 81° 45′ E., with an area of 2,524 square miles. The population decreased from 145,413 in 1891 to 139,629 in 1901. The density is 55 persons per square mile. There are 854 inhabited villages, but no town. The head-quarters are situated at Dindorī, a village with 945 inhabitants, distant 64 miles from Mandlā by road. Excluding 942 square miles of Government forest, 48 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The demand for land revenue in 1903–4 was Rs. 83,000, and for cesses Rs. 10,000. The *tahsīl* consists mainly of masses of precipitous hills covered with forest, with small and sometimes very fertile valleys bordering the numerous streams, and partly of a treeless undulating plain much cut up by nullahs.

Mandlā Town.—Head-quarters of the District and *tahsīl* of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 36′ N. and 80° 23′ E., 60 miles south-east of Jubbulpore by road, and 22 miles from Nainpur junction on the narrow-gauge Jubbulpore-Gondiā line. The town is picturesquely situated in a loop of the river Narbadā which surrounds it on three sides, and for fifteen miles between Mandlā and Rāmnagar flows in a deep bed unbroken by rocks. Population (1901), 5,428. Mandlā was made the capital of the Gond Garhā-Mandlā dynasty about 1670. The Gonds erected a fort and built a palace. Their successors, the Marāthās, built a wall on the side of the town not protected by the river, which has lately been demolished. Mandlā was held by a Marāthā garrison in 1818, and was taken by assault by the British. It

contains numerous *ghāts* leading down to the Narbadā, and some modern temples. Rāmnagar, the site of a Gond palace, is ten miles from Mandlā. The town was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs.7,400. In 1903-4 the receipts were Rs. 7,600, mainly derived from a house-tax and tolls on roads and ferries. The principal industry is the manufacture of vessels from bell-metal. A number of betel-vine gardens are situated in the outskirts of the town, and vegetables are grown on the stretches of sandy alluvial soil which are left exposed during the dry season on the banks of the Narbadā. Mandlā contains an English middle school, girls' and branch schools, besides a private Sanskrit school; three dispensaries, including mission and police hospitals; and a veterinary dispensary. A station of the Church Missionary Society has been established here.

Seonī District.—District in the Jubbulpore Division of the Central Provinces, consisting of a long narrow section of the Sātpurā plateau overlooking the Narbadā valley on the north and the Nāgpur plain on the south, and lying between 21° 36′ and 22° 57′ N. and 79° 19′ and 80° 17′ E., with an area of 3,206 square miles. It is bounded on the north by Narsinghpur and Jubbulpore Districts; on the east by Mandlā, Bālāghāt, and Bhandāra; on the south by Nāgpur; and on the west by Chhindwāra. All round the north and north-west of the District the border hills of the Sātpurā range, thickly fringed with forest and overlooking the Narbadā, separate Seonī from Jubbulpore and Narsinghpur, except along a strip to the north-east, where the Narbadā itself is the boundary towards Mandlā, and 44 villages lying below the hills are included in the District. In the extreme north-west also a few villages below the hills belong to Seonī. South of the northern passes lies the Lakhnādon plateau, a rolling country of alternate ridges and hollows, terminating in another belt of hill and forest which leads down to the Waingangā. Except to the east where an open plain stretches to the Mandlā border, and along part of the western boundary, the Lakhnādon plateau is surrounded by jungle. The Sher river flows through the centre of the plateau from east to west, and passes into Narsinghpur to join the Narbadā. The Temūr and Soner are other tributaries of the Narbadā rising in the south. To the south-west of the District, and separated from the Lakhnādon plateau by the Thel and Waingangā rivers, lies the Seonī Haveli, a level tract of the most fertile black soil in the District, extending from the

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

line of hills east of Seonī town to the Chhindwāra border. In this plateau the Waingangā rises at Partābpur, a few miles south of Seonī, and flows for some distance to the north until it is joined by the Thel from Chhindwāra, and then across the District to the east, crossing the Nāgpur-Jubbulpore road at Chhapāra. On the south-west the Pench separates Seonī from Chhindwāra. The general heights of the Seonī and Lakhnādon plateaux are about 2,000 feet above sea-level, but the peak of Manorī on the western border of the District rises to 2,749 feet, and that of Kariāpahār near Seonī to 2,379 feet. East of Seonī a line of hills runs from south to north, and beyond this lies another open tract, about 200 feet lower than the Seonī plain, constituting the valleys of the Sāgar and Hirrī rivers, and containing the tracts of Ghansor and Barghāt. Another line of hills separates the Ghansor plain from the valley of the Waingangā, which, after crossing the District from west to east, turns south at the point where it is joined by the Thānwar river from Mandlā, and forms the boundary of Seonī for some miles until it diverges into Bālāghāt. The valley of the Waingangā, at first stony and broken and confined by hills as it winds round the northern spurs of the Seonī plateau, becomes afterwards an alternation of rich alluvial basins and narrow gorges, until just before reaching the eastern border of the District it commences its descent to the lower country, passing over a series of rapid and deep stony channels, overhung by walls of granite 200 feet high. The falls of the Waingangā and its course for the last six miles, before its junction with the Thānwar on the border of the District, may perhaps rank next to the Bherāghāt gorge of the Narbadā for beauty of river scenery. The lower valley of the Waingangā is about 400 feet below the Ghansor plain, from which it is separated by another line of forest-clad hills, and a narrow rice-growing strip along its western bank, called the Uglī tract, is included in Seonī. In the extreme south of the Seonī *tahsīl* a small area of submontane land, forming the Dongartāl or Kurai tract, and largely covered with forest, is the residence of numbers of Gaolīs, who are professional cattle-breeders. The Bāwanthari river rising in the southern hills, and receiving the waters of numerous small streams, carries the drainage of this area into Nāgpur District on its way to join the Waingangā.

Geology. The District is covered by the Deccan trap, except on the southern and south-eastern borders, where gneissic rocks prevail.

Botany. The forests are extensive and form a thick belt along the

northern and southern hills, with numerous isolated patches in the interior. In the north they are stunted and scanty, and the open country is bare of trees, and presents a bleak appearance, the villages consisting of squalid-looking collections of mud huts perched generally on a bare ridge. In the rice tracts, on the other hand, the vegetation is luxuriant, and fruit trees are scattered over the open country and round the villages. Owing to the abundance of wood the houses are large and well-built, and surrounded by bamboo fences enclosing small garden plots. The northern forests have much teak, but usually of small size, and there is also teak along the Waingangā river; the forests in the south-east are principally composed of bamboos. The open country in the south is wooded with trees and groves of *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*), *tendū* or ebony (*Diospyros tomentosa*), *achār* (*Buchanania latifolia*) and fruit trees, such as mango and tamarind.

Tigers and leopards are not very common; but deer are found in considerable numbers, and both land and water birds are fairly frequent in different parts of the District. Fauna.

The climate is cool and pleasant, excessive heat being rarely felt even in the summer months. Climate.

The rainfall averages 53 inches. During the thirty years previous to 1896 the rainfall was only once less than 30 inches, in 1867–8. Irregular distribution is, however, not uncommon. Rainfall.

From the inscription on a copper plate found in Seonī combined with others in the Ajanta caves, it has been inferred that a line of princes, the Vākātaka dynasty, was ruling on the Sātpurā plateau from the third century A.D., the name of the perhaps mythical hero who founded it being given as Vindhyāsakti. Little is known of this dynasty except the names of ten princes, and the fact that they contracted alliances with better-known ruling houses. The architectural remains at Deogarh and Lakhnādon may, however, be attributed to them or their successors, as they could not have been constructed by the Gonds. History is then a blank until the sixteenth century, when Seonī fell under the dominion of the rising Gond dynasty of Garhā-Mandlā. Ghansor, Chauri, and Dongartāl were three of the fifty-two forts included in the possessions of Rājā Sangrām Sāh in 1530, and the territories attached to these made up the bulk of the present District. A century and a half afterwards the Mandlā Rājā was obliged to call in the help of Bakht Buland, the Deogarh prince, to assist in the suppression of a revolt of two Pathān adventurers, and in return for this ceded to him the territories now consti- History.

tuting Seonī. Bakht Buland came to take possession of his new dominions, and was engaged one day in a hunting expedition near Seonī, when he was attacked by a wounded bear. An unknown Pathān adventurer, Tāj Khān, came to his assistance and killed the bear, and Bakht Buland was so pleased with his dexterous courage that he made him governor of the Dongartāl *taluka*, then in a very unsettled condition. When Seonī, with the rest of the Deogarh kingdom, was seized by Raghujī Bhonsla, Muhammad Khān, the son of Tāj Khān, held out in Dongartāl for three years on behalf of his old master; and Raghujī finally, in admiration of his fidelity, appointed him governor of Seonī-Chhapāra with the title of Dīwān, and his descendants continued to administer the District until shortly before the cession. In the beginning of the nineteenth century Chhapāra, at that period a large and flourishing town with 2,000 Pathān fighting men, was sacked by the Pindāris during the absence of the garrison at Nāgpur and utterly ruined. A tombstone near the Waingangā bridge still marks the site where 40,000 persons are said to have been buried in a common grave[1].

Seonī became British territory in 1818, being ceded by the treaty which followed the battle of Sītābaldī. During the Mutiny the tranquillity of the District was disturbed only by the revolt of a Lodhī landholder in the north, who joined the rebels of Jubbulpore and Narsinghpur. They established themselves on some hills overlooking the Jubbulpore road near Sukrī, from which they made excursions to burn and plunder villages. The rebels were dispersed and the country pacified on the arrival of the Nāgpur Irregulars at the end of 1857. The representative of the Dīwān family firmly supported the British Government. In 1873 the greater part of the old Katangī *tahsīl* of Seonī was transferred to Bālāghāt, and 51 villages below the hills to Nāgpur, while Seonī received accessions of 122 villages, including the Adegaon *taluka* from Chhindwāra, and 8 villages from Mandlā.

Archaeology.

The archaeological remains are of little importance. At Ghansor in the Seonī *tahsīl* are the ruins of numerous Jain temples, now only heaps of cut and broken stone, and several tanks. Ashtā, 28 miles from Seonī in the Barghāt tract, contains three temples built of cut stone without cement. There are three similar temples in Lakhnādon and some sculptures in the *tahsīl*. Bīsāpur near Kurai has an old temple

[1] According to another account the 40,000 perished in a battle between the rulers of Seonī and Mandlā.

which is said to have been built by Sonā Rānī, widow of the Gond Rājā Bhopat, and a favourite popular heroine. The ruins of her palace and an old fort are also to be seen at Amodāgarh near Uglī on the Hirrī river. Along the southern spurs of the Sātpurās, the remains of a number of other Gond forts are visible at Umargarh, Bhainsāgarh, Partābgarh, and Kohwāgarh.

The people.

The population of Seonī at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 335,997; (1891) 370,767; (1901) 327,709. Between 1881 and 1891 the District prospered and the rate of increase was about the same as that for the Province as a whole. The decrease of 11½ per cent. in the last decade was due to bad seasons and emigration to Assam. The principal statistics in 1901 are shown below:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Seonī	1,648	1	677	192,364	117	− 12·3	4,390
Lakhnādon	1,558	...	712	135,345	87	− 10·7	2,761
District total	3,206	1	1,389	327,709	102	− 9·11	7,151

The statistics of religion show that 55 per cent. of the population are Hindus, 40 per cent. Animists, and about 4½ per cent. Muhammadans. There are some large Muhammadan landlords, the principal being the representative of the Dīwān's family, who holds a considerable estate, the Gondī *taluka*, on quit-rent tenure. The people are for the most part immigrants from the north-west, and rather more than half speak the Bundelī dialect of Western Hindī. Urdū is the language of nearly 11,000 of the Muhammadans and Kāyasths, and about 20,000 persons in the south-east of the District below the hills speak Marāthī. The Ponwārs have a dialect of their own akin to Rājāsthāni; and Gondī is spoken by 102,000 persons, or rather more than 75 per cent. of the number of Gonds in the District.

Their castes and occupations.

Gonds number 130,000, or 40 per cent. of the population. They have lost many of their villages, but the important estates of Sarekhā and Dhūma still belong to Gond landlords. Ahīrs number 31,000, Mālis 10,000, and the menial caste of Mehrās (weavers and labourers) 19,000. Lodhīs (5,000) and Kurmīs (8,000) are important cultivating castes. Baniās

(3,000) have now acquired over 100 villages. Another landholding caste are the Bāgri Rājputs, who possess between 60 and 70 villages and are fairly prosperous. The Ponwārs (16,000) are the landowners in the rice tracts of Barghāt and Uglī. They are industrious, skilled in irrigation, and take an interest in cattle-breeding. About 70 per cent. of the whole population were shown as dependent on agriculture in 1901.

Christian missions.

Christians number 183, of whom 165 are natives. A mission of the original Free Church of Scotland is maintained in the town of Seonī.

General agricultural conditions.

Over the greater part of the District the soil is formed from the decomposition of trap rock. The best black soil is very rare, covering only one per cent. of the cultivated area; and the greater part of the land on the plateaux or in the valleys is black and brown soil, mixed to a greater or less extent with sand or limestone grit, which covers 49 per cent. of the cultivated area. There is a large quantity of inferior red and stony land, on which only the minor millets and *til* can be grown. Lastly, in the rice tracts of Seonī is found light sandy soil, not itself of any great fertility, but responding readily to manure and irrigation. The land of the Seonī *tahsīl* is generally superior to that of Lakhnādon.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

About 236 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue, the greater part of this area being comprised in the large Gondī *taluka* which belongs to the Dīwān family. Nearly 7,000 acres have been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules; and 180 square miles, consisting partly of land which was formerly Government forest and partly of villages of escheated estates, are being settled on the *ryotwāri* system. The remaining area is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The principal agricultural statistics in 1903-4 are shown below, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Seonī . .	1,648	712	$5\frac{1}{2}$	453	468
Lakhnādon .	1,558	663	$\frac{1}{2}$	484	360
Total	3,206	1,375	6	937	828

The principal crops are wheat, *kodon*, and rice. Wheat occupied 365 square miles, or about 32 per cent. of the cropped area, the greater part being in the Haveli and Ghansor tracts. Only 3 per cent. of the fields classed as fit to grow wheat

are embanked. *Kodon* and *kutkī*, the light autumn millets, were sown in 195 square miles, or 17 per cent. of the cropped area. Rice occupied about 114 square miles, or 8 per cent. of the cropped area. It has decreased in popularity during the last few years, owing to the distribution of the rainfall having been generally unfavourable, and the area under it at present is about 50 square miles less than at the time of settlement. Rice is generally transplanted, only about 20 per cent. of the total area being sown broadcast in normal years. Linseed, *til* and other oilseeds, gram, lentils, *tiurā*, *jowār*, and cotton are the other crops. *Jowār* and cotton have lately increased in popularity, while the area under linseed has greatly fallen off.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

A great deal of new land has been broken up since the settlement of 1864–5, the increase in cultivated area up to the last settlement (1894–6) amounting to 50 per cent. A considerable proportion of the new land is of inferior quality and requires periodical resting fallows. The three-coultered sowing drill and weeding harrow used by cultivators of the Deccan for *jowār* have lately been introduced into Seonī. *San*-hemp is a profitable minor crop, which has recently come into favour. No considerable sums have been taken under the Land Improvement Act, the total amount borrowed between 1894 and 1904 being Rs. 29,000; but nearly 2½ lakhs has been advanced in agricultural loans.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

Cattle are bred principally in the Kurai tract and in the north of the Lakhnādon *tahsīl*. The Gaolīs and Golars in Kurai are professional cattle-breeders, and keep bulls. Large white bullocks are reared, and sold in Nāgpur and Berār, where they fetch Rs. 50 or Rs. 60 a pair as yearlings. The Lakhnādon bullocks are smaller, and the majority are of a grey colour. Frequently no special bulls are kept, and the immature males are allowed to mix with the cows before castration. Gonds and poor Muhammadans sometimes use cows for ploughing, especially when they are barren. In the rice tracts buffaloes are used for cultivation. Small ponies are bred and are used for riding in the Haveli, especially during the rains. Sheep are not numerous, but considerable numbers of goats are bred by ordinary agriculturists both for food and for religious offerings. Lakhnādon has an especially good breed of goats.

Irrigation.

About 46 square miles of rice land and 2,000 acres of sugar-cane and garden crop land are classed as irrigable, and this area was shown as irrigated in the year of settlement. In 1903–4 the irrigated area was only 6 square miles, owing to the unfavourable rainfall, which was insufficient to fill the

tanks. About 18 square miles are irrigated from tanks and 4,000 acres from wells and other sources in a good year. Rice is watered from tanks, both by percolation and by cutting the embankments. Sugar-cane and garden crops are supplied from wells. There are about 650 tanks and 1,300 wells.

Forests.

The Government forests cover an area of 828 square miles, of which 11 have been demarcated for disforestation and settlement on *ryotwāri* tenure. They are well distributed in all parts of the District. Teak and *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) are the chief timber trees, the best teak growing in the Kurai range, where there are three plantations. Bamboos are also plentiful. *Mahuā* and lac are the most important minor products. The forest revenue in 1903–4 amounted to Rs. 63,000.

Minerals.

Iron is found in the Kurai range in the south of the District and was formerly extracted by native methods, but has now been displaced by English iron. Other deposits occur in the valley of the Hirrī river. In Khairā on the Sāgar river, 23 miles from Seonī towards Mandlā, coal has been discovered, and a prospecting licence granted. The sands of the Pachdhār and Bāwanthari rivers have long been washed for gold in insignificant quantities. An inferior kind of mica has been met with in Rūkhar on the Seonī-Nāgpur road and the hills near it. A smooth greyish-white chalk is obtained near Chhapāra on the north bank of the Waingangā. Light-coloured amethysts and topazes are found among the rocks in the Adegaon tract. A good hard stone is obtained from quarries in the hills and in the villages of Chakkī-Khamariā, Janāwarkhedā, and Khankarā, from which grindstones, rolling-slabs, and mortars are made, and sold all over Seonī and the adjoining Districts of Chhindwāra and Bhandāra.

Arts and manufactures.

The weaving of coarse cotton cloth is carried on in several villages, principally at Seonī, Barghāt, and Chhapāra. *Tasar* silk cloth was formerly woven at Seonī, but the industry is nearly extinct. Country cloth is dyed at Mungwāni, Chhapāra, Kahāni, and other villages, *āl* (Indian madder) being still used, though it has to a larger extent been supplanted by the imported German dye. At Adegaon the *amohwā* green cloths are dyed with a mixture of madder and myrabolams. Glass bangles are made from imported glass at Chaonrī, Pātan, and Chhapāra; and lac bangles at Seonī, Chhapāra, Bakhāri, and Lakhnādon. Earthen vessels are made in several villages, those of Kaniwāra and Pachdhār having a special reputation. These are universally used for keeping water, and also for the storage of such articles as

grain and *ghī*, while Muhammadans and Gonds employ them as cooking vessels. Iron implements are made at Piparwāni in the Kurai tract from English scrap iron, and are used throughout the south of the District, the Lakhnādon *tahsīl* obtaining its supplies from Narsinghpur and Jubbulpore. Skins are tanned and leather-work is done at Khawāsa.

Commerce.

Wheat is the principal export; but rice is exported to Chhindwāra and the Narbadā valley, and hemp fibre is sent to Calcutta, often to the value of four or five lakhs annually. Gram and oilseeds are exported to some extent, and also the oil of the *kasār* plant, a variety of safflower, which is very prickly and is sown on the borders of wheat-fields to keep out cattle. The exports of forest produce are teak, *sāj*, *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*) and bamboos for building, *mahuā* oil, lac, *chironjī* (the fruit of *Buchanania latifolia*), and myrabolams. *Ghī*, cotton, and hides and horns are also exported. Salt comes principally from the marshes near Ahmadābād and to a less extent from Bombay. Both sugar and *gur* are obtained from the United Provinces, and the latter also from Chhindwāra. Cotton piece-goods, from both Bombay and Calcutta, are now generally worn by the better classes, in place of hand-made cloth. Betel-leaves, turmeric, and catechu are imported from surrounding Districts. Superior country-made shoes come from Calcutta and Delhi. The trade in grain and *ghī* is principally in the hands of Agarwāl and Parwār Baniās, and there are one or two shops of Cutchī Muhammadans. The centre of the timber trade is at Kurai, to which wholesale dealers come from Kamptee to make purchases. Barghāt is the most important weekly market, and after it Gopālganj, Kaniwāra, and Keolāri.

Railways and roads.

The narrow-gauge Sātpurā extension of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway has recently (1904) been constructed. A branch line runs from Nainpur junction in Mandlā through Seonī to Chhindwāra, following closely the direction of the Seonī-Mandlā and Seonī-Chhindwāra roads; the length of line in the District is 55 miles. The main connecting line between Gondiā and Jubbulpore also crosses the north-eastern portion of the Lakhnādon *tahsīl*, with stations at Ghansor, Binaikī, and Shikāra; the length of line in the District is 20 miles. The great northern road from Nāgpur to Jubbulpore, metalled and bridged throughout, except at the Narbadā, passes from south to north of the District. The trade of Seonī has hitherto been almost entirely along this road, that of the portion south from Chhapāra going to Kamptee, and that of the northern

incidence per cultivated acre is R. 0-5-9 (maximum R. 0-9-4, minimum R. 0-2-4), while the corresponding figure for rental is R. 0-10-10 (maximum R. 0-15-9, minimum R. 0-6-6). The revenue receipts from land and all sources have been, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue . .	1,54	1,64	2,83	2,79
Total revenue . .	3,64	4,67	4,70	5,42

Local boards and municipalities. Local affairs outside the municipal area of Seonī are entrusted to a District council and two local boards. The income of the District council in 1903-4 was Rs. 50,000. The expenditure on public works was Rs. 10,000, on education Rs. 15,000, and on medical relief Rs. 5,000.

Police and jails. The police force consists of 278 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, under a District Superintendent, and 1,552 watchmen in 1,390 inhabited towns and villages. Seonī town has a District jail with accommodation for 162 prisoners, including 16 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 53.

Education. In respect of education the District stands eleventh in the Province, 4·3 per cent. of the male population being able to read and write in 1901, while only 335 females were returned as literate. The percentage of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 8. Statistics of the number of pupils under instruction are as follows: (1880-1) 1,786; (1890-1) 2,564; (1900-1) 3,420; (1903-4) 4,344, including 337 girls. The educational institutions comprise a high school at Seonī supported by the Scottish Free Church Mission; two English middle schools, four vernacular middle, and sixty primary schools, of which five are girls' schools. The expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 36,000, of which Rs. 20,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 3,000 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries. The District has 5 dispensaries, with accommodation for 56 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 25,774, of whom 383 were in-patients, and 611 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 8,000, the greater part of which was provided from Provincial and Local funds.

Vaccination. Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipality of Seonī. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903-4 was

51 per 1,000 of the District population, a very favourable result.

[Khān Bahādur Aulād Husain, *Settlement Report*, 1899; R. A. Sterndale, *Seonee, or Camp Life on the Sātpurā Range*, 1877. A District Gazetteer is under preparation.]

Seonī Tahsīl.—Southern *tahsīl* of Seonī District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 36′ and 22° 24′ N. and 79° 19 and 80° 6′ E., with an area of 1,648 square miles. The population decreased from 219,284 in 1891 to 192,364 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 117 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, SEONĪ (population, 11,864), the head-quarters of the District and *tahsīl*, and 677 villages. Excluding 468 square miles of Government forest, 60 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 712 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,69,000, and for cesses Rs. 21,000. The western portion of the *tahsīl* towards Chhindwāra consists of a fertile black soil plain, while on the south and east there are tracts of rice country. The remainder is hilly and undulating.

Lakhnādon.—Northern *tahsīl* of Seonī District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 18° and 22° 57′ N. and 79° 19′ and 80° 17′ E., with an area of 1,358 square miles. The population decreased from 151,483 in 1891 to 135,345 in 1901. The density in the latter year was 87 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 712 villages, but no town. The head-quarters are at Lakhnādon, a village of 2,148 inhabitants, distant 38 miles from Seonī. Excluding 360 square miles of Government forest, 59 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 663 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,11,000, and for cesses Rs. 12,000. The most fertile portions of the *tahsīl* are an open plain to the east towards Mandlā and a small tract on the banks of the Narbadā in the north. The remainder consists of the succession of ridges and valleys characteristic of the Sātpurā country.

Seonī Town.—Head-quarters of the District and *tahsīl* of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 5′ N. and 79° 33′ E., on the road from Nāgpur to Jubbulpore, 79 miles from the former town and 86 from the latter. A branch line of the Sātpurā narrow-gauge railway runs from Nainpur junction through Seonī to Chhindwāra. Population (1901), 11,864, including nearly 3,000 Muhammadans. Seonī was founded in 1774 by the Pathān governor of Chhapāra, who

removed his head-quarters here, and built a fort in which his descendant still resides. It was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 25,000. In 1903–4 the receipts were Rs. 39,000, of which Rs. 29,000 was derived from octroi. Seonī is the principal commercial town on the Sātpurā plateau, and contains a cotton hand-weaving industry. The water-supply is obtained from the Bubariā tank, 2½ miles distant, from which pipes have been carried to the town. The large ornamental Dalsāgar tank in the town is kept filled from the same source. Seonī contains a high school with 33 students, and boys' and girls' schools, supported by the Scottish Free Church Mission, besides municipal English middle and branch schools. The medical institutions comprise three dispensaries, including a police hospital and a veterinary dispensary.

NERBUDDA DIVISION

Nerbudda Division (*Narbadā*).—The western Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 5′ and 23° 15′ N. and 75° 57′ and 79° 38′ E., with an area of 18,382 square miles. It embraces a section of the valley of the Narbadā river, from which the Division takes its name, and some tracts on the Sātpurā plateau to the south of the valley. The head-quarters of the Commissioner are at HOSHANGĀBĀD TOWN. The Division includes five Districts, as shown below:—

District.	Area * in square miles.	Population in 1901.*	Land revenue and cesses, 1903-4, in thousands of rupees.
Narsinghpur	1,976	315,518	6,92
Hoshangābād	3,676	446,585	7,72
Nimār	4,273	329,615	4,61
Betūl	3,826	285,363	2,94
Chhindwāra	4,631	407,927	3,41
Total	18,382	1,785,008	25,60

* The District figures of area and population have been adjusted, to allow for some small transfers of territory which have taken place since the Census of 1901.

Of these Narsinghpur, Hoshangābād, and Nimār extend from east to west along the southern bank of the Narbadā river, while Betūl and Chhindwāra lie on the hills to the south of the valley. The population of the Division was 1,763,105 in 1881, from which it increased in 1891 to 1,881,147, or by 6 per cent. This increase was considerably less than the Provincial average, the explanation being that the fertile tracts of the Narbadā valley were already so closely cultivated as to leave little room for further expansion. During the last decade the population decreased to 1,783,441, or by 5 per cent., as a result of a succession of disastrous failures of crops. Since the Census of 1901 a small transfer of territory has taken place, and the adjusted population in 1904 was 1,785,008. The Nerbudda Division is the smallest in the Province in both area and population. In 1901 Hindus numbered 70 per cent. of the total, and Animists 18 per cent. There were 84,122 Musalmāns, 9,522 Jains, and 5,355 Christians, of whom 709

were Europeans or Eurasians. The density of population is 97 persons per square mile, compared with 112 for the British Districts of the Province. The Division contains 17 towns and 6,164 villages. BURHĀNPUR (33,341) is the only town with more than 20,000 inhabitants. On the large block of the Sātpurās, known as the Mahādeo hills, in the south of Hoshangābād District, is situated the sanitarium of Pachmarhī, which is the summer head-quarters of the Local Government. The small State of Makrai in Hoshangābād is under the supervision of the Commissioner.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Narsinghpur District.—District in the Nerbudda Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 37′ and 23° 15′ N. and 78° 27′ and 79° 38′ E., in the upper half of the Narbadā valley, with an area of 1,976 square miles. On the north it is bounded by the Bhopāl State and by Saugor, Damoh, and Jubbulpore Districts; on the south by Chhindwāra; on the west by Hoshangābād; and on the east by Seonī and Jubbulpore. Nearly the whole District lies to the south of the Narbadā, occupying a stretch of 15 or 20 miles between the river and the northern range of the Sātpurā plateau. The Narbadā forms the northern boundary for a considerable length, and immediately beyond the river the southern scarp of the Vindhyan range extends like a line of cliffs almost along its banks. A small strip of territory lies to the north of the Narbadā. On the south of the District a broad belt of gravelly soil merges through woody borders into the lower slopes of the Sātpurā highlands. The hilly country itself is generally not more than three or four miles in width. Between the Sātpurās and the Narbadā lies the greater part of the District, in the first of the wide alluvial basins which, alternating with rocky gorges, give so varied a character to the river's course. The surface of the valley is covered by a deep layer of black alluvial soil, which is famed for its fertility. The general elevation is about 1,100 feet above the sea, the fall in the course of the Narbadā within the District being very slight. During its passage through Narsinghpur the Narbadā receives the waters of several tributaries, principally from the south. Of these the most important are the Sher and the Shakkar, with their respective affluents, the Māchārewā and Chitārewā. Other smaller rivers are the Dudhī and Soner, which form the western and eastern boundaries of the District, and the Bārūrewā. All these rise in the Sātpurā range on the southern border, and though their courses are short they fill with extraordinary rapidity. The passage of these streams through the soft

alluvial soil produces a wide series of ravines on either bank, rendering the ground for some distance uncultivable, the most marked systems of ravines being on the Narbadā and Sher. The Hiran and Sindhor rivers join the Narbadā from the north.

Geology. The valley in the north of the District is covered by alluvium. The hilly country in the south is occupied by rocks referable partly to the Gondwāna and partly to the transition system.

Botany. The forests are not extensive, and are situated principally on the slopes of the Sātpurās along the south of the District, with a few patches on the northern border beyond the Narbadā. The principal tree, even in the forests, is the *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*); and the rest is mainly a scrubby growth of small teak, *achār* (*Buchanania latifolia*), *daman* (*Grewia tiliaefolia*), *sālai* (*Boswellia serrata*), *palās* (*Butea frondosa*), and similar shrubs and stunted trees. The open country is well provided with *mahuā* and other fruit-bearing or sacred trees.

Fauna. Tigers are not numerous. Leopards and bears frequent the low hills. *Sāmbar* and *nīlgai* are met with in most of the forests, but spotted deer are scarce. Bison sometimes visit the south-western hills in the rainy months. The forests are singularly devoid of bird life. Quail are plentiful in certain tracts, as also are peafowl and sand-grouse, but there are very few water birds.

Climate and rainfall. The climate is generally healthy and very pleasant in the cold season. The annual rainfall averages 51 inches, and is more usually excessive than deficient, wheat on the heavy black soil being very liable to rust. Frosts sometimes occur in the cold season, but hail is rare.

History. At the earliest period at which anything is known of its history, Narsinghpur formed part of the dominions of the Mandlā Gond dynasty. The stronghold of Chaurāgarh, twenty miles south-west of Narsinghpur town, on the crest of the outer range of the Sātpurā table-land, is intimately associated with the history of the Mandlā kings. Embracing two hills within its circle of defences, it is less a fort than a huge fortified camp; and the vast scale of the whole work, its numerous tanks and wells excavated at so unusual an elevation, and the massive débris of the buildings, attest the lavish outlay incurred in its completion, and the importance which was attached to it as a royal stronghold. In 1564 Asaf Khān, a Mughal general, invaded the Mandlā territories, defeated the Rānī Durgāvati, widow of the Gond Rājā Dalpat Shāh, and

took by storm Chaurāgarh, finding, it is said, 100 jars of gold coin and 1,000 elephants. Three generations later, in the time of Rājā Prem Nārāyan, the Bundelā prince of Orchhā invaded the valley and took Chaurāgarh after a siege of some months, Prem Nārāyan being killed by treachery. Rānī Durgāvati and Prem Nārāyan are still celebrated in folklore. In 1781 the Gond dynasty was finally overthrown and the valley came under the rule of the Marāthā *Sūbahs* of Saugor, who were displaced by the Bhonslas fifteen years later. In November, 1817, on the first intelligence of the disturbances at Nāgpur and the treachery of Rājā Appa Sāhib, British troops were moved into Narsinghpur and the Marāthā garrison at Srīnagar was defeated. The fort at Chaurāgarh held out for some time, but was evacuated in May, 1818. The District subsequently came under British administration, and was augmented in 1826 by the temporary cession by Sindhia of the trans-Narbadā *parganas* of Chānwarpātha and Tendūkhedā, which finally became British territory in 1860. Since 1818 the tranquillity of the District has been twice disturbed. During the Bundelā rising of 1842 the rebels invaded Narsinghpur, receiving the tacit support of nearly all the landholders of Chānwarpātha, and plundered several villages, but were finally defeated and forced to recross the Narbadā. In 1857 the Saugor and Bhopāl mutineers entered Chānwarpātha on two occasions, and made isolated forays across the Narbadā. Except from two or three landholders in Chānwarpātha they met with no support, and were stubbornly resisted at Tendūkhedā, and by Rao Sūrat Singh Lodhī at his village of Imjhirā. The Deputy-Commissioner, Captain Ternan, took the field with two companies of irregular troops and some matchlockmen furnished by the Gond chiefs, and drove out the rebels. It is worth noticing that this officer had as early as February, 1857, submitted a report on the circulation of the *chapātis*, stating his belief that they portended an insurrection; but his warning was disregarded.

Archaeology.

There are few archaeological remains of interest. Barehtā, fourteen miles south-east of Narsinghpur town, formerly contained a number of sculptures, some of which have been brought to Narsinghpur and placed in the public gardens, while other sculptures are believed to have been taken to Europe, and little remains at Barehtā itself. An important place of pilgrimage in the District is Barmhān at the junction of the Narbadā and Warāhi rivers, while there are numerous temples and fine flights of stone steps leading up to the north

bank of the river. Dhilwar and Chānwarpātha contain the ruins of Gond forts.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 365,173; (1891) 367,026; (1901) 313,951. A small transfer of territory to Narsinghpur from Saugor was made in 1902, and the corrected totals of area and population are now 1,976 square miles and 315,518 persons. Between 1881 and 1891 the population was nearly stationary. In the last intercensal period the decrease was at the rate of 14 per cent. Deaths exceeded births in six years of the decade, and the District was severely affected by the famines of both 1897 and 1900. The District has three towns, NARSINGHPUR, GĀDARWĀRA, and CHHINDWĀRA; and 963 inhabited villages. The following statistics of population in 1901 have been adjusted on account of the transfer mentioned above:—

Tahsil.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Narsinghpur .	1,106	2	533	150,305	136	− 14·0	7,291
Gādarwāra .	870	1	430	165,213	190	− 14·9	7,660
District total	1,976	3	963	315,518	160	− 14·5	14,951

About 85 per cent. of the population are Hindus, 10 per cent. Animists, and nearly 4 per cent. Muhammadans. Practically the whole population speak the Bundelī dialect of Western Hindī, the Gonds having almost entirely abandoned their own language. Marāthī, Urdū, and Gondī are spoken by a few hundred persons each.

Their castes and occupations.

The principal landholding castes are Brāhmans (24,000), Rājputs (14,000), Baniās (9,000), Kurmīs (7,000), Lodhīs (30,000), Kaonrās (14,000), and Rāj Gonds. Brāhmans belong principally to Northern India, but there are also some Marāthā Brāhman landlords, who generally bear the title of *Pandit*. The Golāpūrabs form a local sub-caste of Brāhmans, who have been settled in the District for a long time and are solely cultivators; they neither beg nor perform priestly functions. Most of the Rājputs belong to a local sub-caste called Gorai, and are of mixed descent. The principal cultivating castes are Lodhīs, Kurmīs, and Kaonrās. The Kaonrās profess to be

descended from the Kauravas of the Mahābhārata, who after being defeated by the Pāndavas came and settled in Narsinghpur. They are certainly not Rājputs, and there is some reason for supposing them to be a branch of the Ahīrs. The labouring classes are Chamārs (17,000) and Mehrās (15,000), who together form about 10 per cent. of the population; and Gonds, who number 35,000, or 11 per cent. These are all in very poor circumstances. The Gonds are comparatively civilized, but live from hand to mouth. Many of them have only a garden plot for spade cultivation, or a small holding of the poorest soil. They depend largely on the *mahuā* crop and other forest produce, and on the sale of head-loads of grass and fuel. About 62 per cent. of the population were returned as dependent on agriculture in 1901.

Christian missions. Of the 359 Christians, 66 belong to the Anglican communion and 267 are Methodists. Native Christians number 319. The Hardwicke American Methodist Episcopal Mission has a station at Narsinghpur.

General agricultural conditions. The greater part of the cultivated area consists of black alluvial soil. The quality varies according to the lie of the land, ground which is undulating or cut up by ravines being the poorest. Below the Sātpurā Hills there is a belt of light sandy soil suited to the growth of rice. A somewhat peculiar system followed in the hill country is that of sowing several of the autumn crops together, such mixtures as *kodon*, *jowār*, and cotton, *til* and *arhar*, or rice, *jowār*, and *arhar*, with *urad* or *mūng* as a fourth ingredient in each case, being found in the same field. The cultivators hope that in such cases they will get a good return from one or two of the crops whatever the nature of the season may be; but such a heterogeneous mixture can scarcely be considered good agriculture. In recent years there have been heavy decreases in the acreage of wheat, gram, and *kodon*, partly counterbalanced by a rise in those of *masūr*, rice, and cotton.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops. More than 45 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue, and the remainder on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The following table gives the principal agricultural statistics in 1903–4, in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Narsinghpur . .	1,106	489	1	314	186
Gādarwāra . .	870	515	2	265	63
Total	1,976	1,004	3	579	249

No considerable extension of cultivation is now possible. Wheat, either sown singly or mixed with gram, covers 318 square miles, or 27 per cent. of the cropped area; gram, 176 square miles; *til*, 78; rice, 54; *jowār*, 33; and cotton, 50. The small millet *kodon* is mainly grown as a food-crop in the hilly tracts by Gond cultivators and is not exported. Only 7,000 acres are occupied by linseed. It is peculiarly liable to rust, and is therefore not a popular crop for heavy black soil, but the area under it was larger a few years ago than at present. The cultivation of cotton has recently increased. It is grown on the light soil along the banks of the Narbadā or mixed with other crops, and the out-turn is usually poor. Rice is mainly raised as a catch-crop in embanked fields before gram, or as a mixture with other crops.

Improvements in agricultural practice. The principal agricultural improvement is the embankment of wheat-fields to hold up water during the rains. This, however, is practised only in the eastern part of the District adjoining Jubbulpore, and the anticipation that it would gradually extend to the remaining area has not been fulfilled. Only about 2,500 acres were regularly embanked in 1893, but since then up to 1905 embankments have been constructed on an additional 13,000 acres. In places where the surface is sloping the field cannot be embanked on all sides, but a bank is run across the lower end to prevent scouring. About 78 square miles have small embankments of this type or *bandhiās*. During the eleven years following 1893 only Rs. 17,000 was advanced in Land Improvement Loans, and 1·9 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep. Cattle are bred in the District, and are also imported from Chhindwāra, Nimār, Hoshangābād, and Saugor. The Narsinghpur cattle have no particular reputation. They are slow, but have the strength which is requisite for cultivation in the heavy black soil. The number of cattle was greatly reduced by mortality in the famines. Buffaloes are kept for breeding purposes and for the manufacture of *ghī*. There were formerly a considerable number of horses in the District; but the impoverishment of many landowners and the construction of good roads have rendered horse-breeding too expensive, and to a great extent destroyed the taste for it, the people generally preferring a bullock-cart to a horse, when the former method of locomotion is practicable.

Irrigation. Only about 2,000 to 2,500 acres are irrigated. Irrigation is almost entirely from wells, and is practically confined to sugarcane and garden crops. There are about 1,100 irrigation wells.

Forests.

The area of Government forest is 249 square miles, all of which is 'reserved.' The principal forests are on the Sātpurā range in the south of the District, and there are small patches north of the Narbadā on the Vindhyan range. Teak, *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *khair* (*Acacia Catechu*), and bamboos are the principal trees. The revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 20,000.

Minerals.

The coal-mines situated at Mohpāni, twelve miles from Gādarwāra at the foot of the Sātpurā Hills, are served by a branch line of railway. They have been worked since 1862, and the opening out of some fresh seams has recently been undertaken. The annual out-turn is now about 43,000 tons. The coal is of moderate quality. In 1904 the mines were sold by the Nerbudda Coal and Iron Company to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Coal is also found in small quantities in the Sher and Shakkar rivers. There are iron mines at Tendūkhedā on the north of the Narbadā close to the base of the Vindhyan range, but they are worked only by native miners, or Lohārs. About 150 large and 70 small furnaces were working in 1895; but the returns for 1904 show only 8, and the industry is now nearly extinct, though the iron has a local reputation. The mines are mere open pits cut to the depth of about 30 feet through the black soil and underlying clay, and have to be re-excavated annually after the rainy season. Copper ores occur at Barmhān. They were worked for a time, and the band of rock in which they lie was found to be 6 feet thick, while the average yield of copper from some ores was 28 per cent.

Arts and manufactures.

Hand-weaving and dyeing were formerly carried on to a considerable extent, but the industries are suffering from the competition of machine-made cloth. Gādarwāra is the most important centre, while Singhpur and Amgaon have also considerable numbers of looms and dye-houses and Narsinghpur a few. Indigo is used in combination with other agents to produce the dark-green cloth called *amohwā*, padded coats of which are largely worn in the cold season. Chichlī has an industry of brass-workers, and brass vessels are also imported from Jubbulpore and Poona. Glass bangles are made at Nayākhedā and Bārha, and rude glass bottles for holding the sacred water of the Narbadā at Barmhān. A few Muhammadan butchers have settled at Gādarwāra and prepare dried meat. A ginning factory has lately been opened at Gādarwāra by a private company, and another at Chhindwāra.

Commerce.

Wheat has hitherto been the staple product of Narsinghpur

District, forming about 50 per cent. of the total exports. Oilseeds, gram, and other grains are also exported to a less extent. *Ghī* is sent to Calcutta and Bombay, and hides and bones to Bombay. The exports of forest produce from Narsinghpur are not considerable, but those of the adjoining tracts of Chhindwāra are brought to Bābai station. The imports are principally cotton piece-goods, salt, sugar, kerosene oil, tobacco, and articles of hardware. Rice is imported by road from Seonī and Chhindwāra, salt comes from Ahmadābād, and *gur* or unrefined cane-sugar from Lucknow and Patna. Three annual fairs are held, at Barmhān, Barehtā, and Sānkal. A large amount of traffic in household and other commodities takes place at the Barmhān fair.

Railways and roads. The Jubbulpore line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway passes through the centre of the District from west to east, having a length of 75 miles and 8 stations within its limits. There is also a branch line of 12 miles from Gādarwāra to the Mohpāni coal-mines. The feeder roads to Gādarwāra, Karelī, Chhindwāra, and Narsinghpur are the most important trade-routes. Previous to the opening of the railway to Saugor, Karelī was a place of considerable importance, as it was the station for Saugor, with which it is connected by a metalled road crossing the Narbadā at Barmhān. It now only retains the trade of the southern part of the Rehlī *tahsīl* and the centre of Narsinghpur. A metalled road is projected from Narsinghpur town to Lakhnādon in Seonī District and has been constructed for 17 miles, but it passes through poor country and there is not much traffic on it. The old road from Jubbulpore to Bombay runs through the District, but as it adjoins and is parallel to the railway, it is no longer of any importance. The length of metalled roads in the District is 79 miles, and of unmetalled roads 135 miles. The expenditure on maintenance in 1903–4 was Rs. 33,000. The Public Works department maintains 94 miles of the more important roads and the District council the remainder. There are avenues of trees on 117 miles.

Famine. The earliest scarcities of which accounts are available resulted rather from political disturbances than climatic causes. War and its effects caused distress in the upper Narbadā valley during the years 1771, 1783, and 1809. It is recorded that in 1771 wheat sold in Narsinghpur at 5 seers to the rupee. In 1832–3 severe distress occurred, owing to a poor harvest caused by excessive, followed by deficient, rain. The failure of 1868–9 was not severe in Narsinghpur. In 1894 and 1895 the spring

crops were spoilt by excessive winter rain. A little relief was given by opening works in 1895, and the forests were thrown open. In 1895 the rains stopped prematurely and the harvest was only 60 per cent. of normal. This was followed by a total failure of the crops in 1896–7. Famine prevailed throughout the year 1897, when 59,000 persons, or 16 per cent. of the population, were on relief in June. The total expenditure was 10 lakhs, the principal form of relief consisting of road works. In 1899–1900 two-fifths of a normal crop were obtained, and the District was not severely distressed. The expenditure was 1·5 lakhs, and some useful work was done in the eradication of *kāns* grass (*Saccharum spontaneum*) and the construction of field embankments.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner is aided by three Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into two *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The Forest officer usually belongs to the Provincial Service.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and a Subordinate Judge, and a Munsif at each *tāhsīl*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nerbudda Division has jurisdiction in Narsinghpur. The crime of the District, which was serious a few years ago, is now petty. Civil work is very heavy, and the people are noted for their fondness for litigation. Suits between landlord and tenant and mortgage suits furnish the largest number of cases.

Land revenue administration.

Under the Marāthā revenue system, villages were let out to the highest bidder, and any rights or consideration which the village headmen may have enjoyed in the past were almost entirely effaced. No legal status was given to tenants, and the older cultivators were protected only by the custom that, so long as the annual rent demanded was paid, their tenure was hereditary and continuous. During the period of Marāthā rule the District was severely rack-rented, every possible device of illegal exaction being employed to raise money; but the effect of this oppressive administration was largely counterbalanced by the fact that the considerable garrisons maintained at Srīnagar and Chaurāgarh and the court of the local governor afforded a ready market for produce. These facts were disregarded when the District first came under British administration, and in consequence the attempts made to collect the nominal demand under the Marāthās proved a disastrous failure. The annual demand at cession was 6·67 lakhs, and twenty years afterwards it had fallen to 4 lakhs. In 1836

a twenty years' settlement was concluded, and the revenue fixed at 3·47 lakhs. The next revision was delayed for some years owing to the Mutiny, and was completed in 1864 by Mr. (Sir Charles) Grant, whose settlement report is one of the most interesting publications relating to the Central Provinces. The revenue was raised to 4·22 lakhs, an increase of 27 per cent., the settlement being made for thirty years. During its currency Narsinghpur, like other Districts at this period, prospered greatly. The cropped area increased by 10½ per cent., and there was a rise of 60 per cent. in the price of grain. A new settlement was concluded in 1894, at which the demand was raised to 6·42 lakhs, or by 50 per cent. Some temporary remissions of land revenue have been made since the famines, in consequence of the agricultural deterioration which resulted from them. The term of the revised settlement varies from fifteen to seventeen years, a shorter period than the one now generally prescribed of twenty years having been adopted, in order to produce a regular rotation of District settlements. The average incidence of revenue per acre of cultivation was R. 0–15–3 (maximum Rs. 1–6–8, minimum R. 0–8–6), while that of the rental was Rs. 1–11–7 (maximum Rs. 2–13–0, minimum R. 0–14–3). Collections on account of land revenue and revenue from all sources are shown below, in thousands of rupees:—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue	4,22	4,21	7,01	6,23
Total revenue	6,39	7,24	9,46	8,48

Local boards and municipalities.

Local affairs, outside municipal areas, are managed by a District council and two local boards each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903–4 was Rs. 78,000. The expenditure was mainly on public works (Rs. 25,000) and education (Rs. 30,000). NARSINGHPUR, CHHINDWĀRA, and GĀDARWĀRA are municipal towns.

Police and jails.

The force under the District Superintendent of police consists of 339 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, besides 1,032 village watchmen for 966 inhabited towns and villages. Narsinghpur town has a District jail, with accommodation for 170 prisoners, including 13 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 89.

Education.

In respect of education the District occupies the fourth position in the Province, nearly 5 per cent. of the population (9·4 males and 0·3 females) being able to read and write. The

proportion of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 13 per cent. Statistics of the number of pupils are as follows: (1880–1) 4,334; (1890–1) 6,062; (1900–1) 5,926; (1903–4) 6,110, including 554 girls. The educational institutions comprise two English and six vernacular middle schools, and ninety-three primary schools. The expenditure on education in 1903–4 was Rs. 49,000, of which Rs. 43,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 4,000 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries.

The District has 7 dispensaries, with accommodation for 98 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 50,813, of whom 571 were in-patients, and 1,879 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 10,000, of which the greater part was provided from Provincial and Local funds.

Vaccination.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns of Narsinghpur, Gādarwāra, and Chhindwāra. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903–4 was 59 per 1,000 of the District population, a high proportion.

[C. Grant, *Settlement Report*, 1866; E. A. De Brett, *Settlement Report*, 1895. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Narsinghpur Tahsīl.—Eastern *tahsīl* of Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 37′ and 23° 13′ N. and 79° 38′ E., with an area of 1,106 square miles. The population in 1901 was 148,738, compared with 172,801 in 1891. In 1902, 11 villages were transferred to the *tahsīl* from Saugor District, and the adjusted population is 150,305 persons. The density is 136 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains two towns, NARSINGHPUR (population, 11,233), the headquarters of the *tahsīl* and District, and CHHINDWĀRA (4,216); and 533 inhabited villages. Excluding 186 square miles of Government forest, 61 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 489 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 3,31,000, and for cesses Rs. 31,000. The *tahsīl* consists roughly of a belt of land near the Narbadā river, where the soil has been impoverished by the action of drainage and much cut up into ravines, a rich black soil tract behind this, and then some sandy and stony land leading up to the Sātpurā Hills on the south.

Gādarwāra Tahsīl.—Western *tahsīl* of Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 38′ and 23° 15′ N. and 78° 27′ and 79° 4′ E., with an area of 870 square miles. The population in 1901 was 165,213, compared with 194,225 in 1891. The density is 190 persons per square mile. The

tahsīl contains one town, GĀDARWĀRA (population, 8,198), the head-quarters, and 430 inhabited villages. Excluding 63 square miles of Government forest, 69 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 515 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 3,03,000, and for cesses Rs. 27,000. The *tahsīl* occupies a tract in the Narbadā valley, consisting of a fertile plain of black soil, cut up into ravines near the river and flanked by a narrow belt of the Sātpurā hill country.

Chhindwāra.—Town in the District and *tahsīl* of Narsinghpur, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 2′ N. and 79° 29′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 583 miles from Bombay. Population (1901), 4,216. Chhindwāra is on the old trunk road to the Deccan, and was established in 1824 by Sir W. Sleeman for the convenience of travellers through the Narbadā valley, at the time when this road was infested by Thags. It was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 4,400. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 4,700, derived mainly from fees on the registration of cattle. Produce from the adjoining tracts is brought to Chhindwāra station for export, and an important weekly cattle market is held here at which more than 1,000 head change hands. A cotton-ginning factory has been erected. Chhindwāra possesses a vernacular middle school and a dispensary.

Gādarwāra Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 55′ N. and 78° 48′ E., on the left bank of the Shakkar and on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Jubbulpore, 536 miles from Bombay. The town was the capital of the District in the time of the Marāthās. Population (1901), 8,198. Gādarwāra was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 19,000. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 33,000, derived principally from octroi. Gādarwāra is the largest exporting station in the District for the local products of *ghī* and grain. Various handicrafts, such as weaving, dyeing, shoe-making, and pottery, are also carried on in the town, but are in a depressed condition. A cotton-ginning factory has recently been erected with a capital of Rs. 32,000, which disposed of cotton to the value of a lakh of rupees in 1902-3. Gādarwāra contains an English middle school and a dispensary.

Narsinghpur Town.—Head-quarters of the District and *tahsīl* of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 57′ N.

and 79° 13′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Jubbulpore, 564 miles from Bombay. Population (1901), 11,233. It was formerly called Chhotā-Gādarwāra, and the name of Narsinghpur was given when a temple of Narsingh (the man-lion incarnation of Vishnu) was erected about 100 years ago. Narsinghpur proper stands on the west bank of the small river Singrī, and the houses on the eastern bank are really situated in a separate town called Kandelī, but are included within the municipality of Narsinghpur. The Singrī, though of absolutely insignificant size, is liable to sudden floods; and in 1891 it submerged the town and civil station, and washed away numerous houses, though the exertions of the civil officers prevented any loss of life. It has been dammed to afford a water-supply to the town. Narsinghpur was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 15,000. In 1903–4 they were Rs. 17,000, mainly derived from octroi, but including a grant of Rs. 4,000 from Provincial funds for education. With the exception of the export of timber from the Chhindwāra forests, there has not hitherto been much trade at Narsinghpur, the adjoining station of Karelī being a more important centre. But since the opening of the railway to Saugor, Karelī has been diminishing and Narsinghpur increasing in importance. Hand-weaving and dyeing and book-binding are among the local handicrafts. The town contains a printing press with Hindī and English type, which issues three monthly vernacular periodicals. It has an English middle and other schools, and three dispensaries. A mission station of the American Methodist Episcopal Church has been established here.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Hoshangābād District.—District in the Nerbudda Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 53′ and 22° 59′ N. and 76° 47′ and 78° 44′ E., with an area of 3,676 square miles. It is bounded on the north by the Native States of Bhopāl and Indore; on the east by Narsinghpur; on the west by Nimār; while the southern border marches with Chhindwāra, Betūl, and Berār. The District consists of a long narrow strip forming the lower portion of the Narbadā valley, with sections of the Sātpurā hill country on the southern border. The Narbadā is the northern boundary of the District and of the Central Provinces along its whole length in Hoshangābād, running from a little north of east to south of west; and the District extends along its southern bank for a length of over 120 miles, while its width varies from 22 to

40 miles. North of the Narbadā lie the Vindhyan mountains, in places seen only as a far-off outline, with the plains of Bhopāl or Indore spread out below, in other places running in and following the line of the river, the water of which washes their base for miles. In these spots outlying spurs and hills are generally found on the southern side. One such spur, known as the Black Rocks, crops up close to Hoshangābād and supplies the town with building and paving stone. With the exception of these outliers, the portion of the District adjoining the Narbadā consists of an open black soil plain of great fertility. In the south the Sātpurās generally run in successive ranges parallel to the line of the valley and trending to the south-west. The portions included in the District consist of the block of the Pachmarhī or Mahādeo hills in the south-east, a low outer range of the Sātpurās running through the Hoshangābād and Hardā *tahsīls* with the valley of the Denwā behind it in the centre, and another wild tract of hill and forest on the south-west called Kālībhīt[1], which extends to the Tāpti on the border of Berār. Most of the peaks of the Sātpurās rise to about 2,000 feet, or a little over, but in the Mahādeo hills there are three with an elevation of over 4,000 feet. Hoshangābād town is 1,011 feet above the sea, and the fall of the Narbadā in this part of its course is rather less than 3 feet in a mile. From the Sātpurās numerous streams run down through the valley to the Narbadā, having in the east, where the slope of the valley is rapid and direct, a very straight course and a length of only about 24 miles from the base of the hills to their confluence, while in the west they make a circular sweep and usually flow for about 40 miles through the plain. The principal of these streams are the Dudhī on the east, dividing Hoshangābād from Narsinghpur, the Tawā flowing through the Hoshangābād *tahsīl*, the Ganjāl separating Seonī-Mālwa and Hardā, and the Machak on the west. These bring down with them large quantities of sand in their floods, which are very high and rapid, and deposit it on the banks, causing deterioration in the soil to a considerable distance. Where two or three rivers escaping separately from the hills draw close together, the whole of the land enclosed between them is generally poor soil overrun with jungle. Notable instances of this are to be seen in the system of rivers which unite near Sohāgpur, and those which join the Indrā east of Seonī, in both of which cases a large belt of forest reaches nearly down to the Narbadā.

[1] Transferred to Nimār District in 1904.

Geology. The plain portion of the District is covered by alluvial soil, consisting of a stiff reddish, yellowish, or brownish clay, with numerous intercalated bands of sand and gravel. *Kankar* abounds throughout the deposit, and pisolitic iron granules are of frequent occurrence. The thickness of the alluvial deposits, as exposed along the banks of rivers, usually does not exceed a maximum of 100 feet. In the west, rocks belonging to the transition system, consisting of quartzite, hornstone-breccia, and limestone, occur near Handiā. The hilly tract to the south, embracing the Pachmarhī or Mahādeo hills, forms part of the great Gondwāna system. At the base of it occurs the Tālcher group, consisting mainly of greenish silt beds, breaking up into small splintering fragments and hence called needle shales, and green, brown, or whitish felspathic sandstones, in both of which pebbles and large boulders are often irregularly scattered. The Tālchers are overlaid by the Dāmuda series, which is made up chiefly of thick-bedded, often coarse felspathic sandstones, with subordinate beds of carbonaceous shale and coal.

Botany. The Government forests cover the hills on the southern border and also extend into the plain, especially along the banks of the rivers in the eastern tract. Almost pure teak forest is found on the alluvial flats along the rivers, and on red stony soil on the lower hill-sides. Mixed forest of *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), teak, *dhaurā* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *haldū* (*Adina cordifolia*), *tinsā* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), and *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*) occurs on the middle and lower slopes of the hill belt. On the dry stony hill-tops and plateaux, more especially those of sandstone formation, *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*) is predominant, with stunted trees of other species, mainly *khair* (*Acacia Catechu*) and *lendiā* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*). *Sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) is found on the Pachmarhī plateau, and *anjan* (*Hardwickia binata*) appears in the Denwā forests of the Sohāgpur range, but does not attain any size.

Fauna. The forests are fairly well stocked with game, including bison in the Borī and Rājāborāri tracts, and tigers, leopards, and the usual kinds of deer over most of the wooded area. Antelope are plentiful in the open country. Of birds, peafowl are the most numerous, and the other land game birds are also common, but duck and snipe are found only in scattered localities. Mahseer may be had in the rivers.

Rainfall and climate. Rainfall is registered at the four *tahsīl* head-quarters and at Pachmarhī. The annual fall at Hoshangābād town is 50 inches, and this may probably be taken as representing the average for the plain. In the hills the rainfall is much heavier.

Until within recent years the District has very rarely suffered from marked deficiency of rain. Thunderstorms occur with comparative frequency in the hot season. Hail is not uncommon and is much dreaded, but duststorms are unknown. The climate is on the whole healthy. The cold season is characterized by bright cloudless days and cold nights with piercing winds; frost is known, but water never freezes. The summer months are hot and dry, and during the rains the weather is somewhat steamy and oppressive, especially in the town of Hoshangābād.

Little is known of the history of the District before the Marāthā invasion. The town of Hoshangābād is believed to take its name from Sultān Hoshang Shāh Ghorī, the second of the Mālwā kings, who reigned from 1405 to 1434. Hoshang Shāh may have passed through Hoshangābād on his way to Kherlā in Betūl, the head-quarters of a Gond dynasty, which he is said by Firishta to have reduced in 1433. In Akbar's time Handiā was the head-quarters of a *Sarkār*, and was occupied by a Faujdār and Dīwān and by Mughal troops. Seonī was attached to Bhopāl, and Hoshangābād is not mentioned at all. Several reasons point to the conclusion that the eastern part of the District was never conquered by the Muhammadans, but was thought too wild and valueless to wrest from the Gonds who occupied it. On the decay of the Mughal empire the District again reverted to the Gonds, who were probably its original masters. In the early part of the eighteenth century the eastern portion of the Rajwāra *pargana* was ruled by four Gond Rājās of Sobhāpur and Fatehpur, who were feudatories of the Mandlā kingdom. The centre formed part of the territories of the Deogarh dynasty, and in the west were the petty chiefs of Makrai and Maklā. About 1720 Dost Muhammad, the founder of the Bhopāl family, took Hoshangābād town and annexed a considerable territory with it. In 1742 the Peshwā Bālāji Bājī Rao passed up the valley on his way to attack Mandlā and subdued the Handiā *pargana*. Eight years later Raghujī Bhonsla of Nāgpur overran the whole range of hills from Gāwīlgarh to Mahādeo, and reduced the country east of Handiā and south of the Narbadā except the portion held by Bhopāl. Hostilities between the Bhopāl and Nāgpur rulers commenced in 1795 and lasted with little intermission for twenty years. Hoshangābād was in that year taken by the Nāgpur troops, but was retaken in 1802 by Wazīr Muhammad, the celebrated minister of Bhopāl. The Bhopāl dominions north of the Narbadā were finally lost to the Marāthās History.

in 1808. During these wars the Pindāris, first summoned by Wazīr Muhammad to his assistance, but afterwards deserting to his enemies, plundered the country impartially in all directions. It is estimated that not a single village escaped being burnt once or twice during the fifteen years for which their depredations lasted, and the greater part of the District was entirely depopulated. The Pindāris were extirpated in 1817; and in 1818 the portions of the District belonging to the Nāgpur kingdom were ceded, under an agreement subsequently confirmed by the treaty of 1826. In 1844 the Hardā-Handiā tract was made over by Sindhia in part payment for the Gwalior Contingent, and in 1860 it was permanently transferred and became British territory. The Mutiny of 1857 disturbed the District very little. There was some trouble with the police at Hardā, a petty chief rebelled in the Mahādeo hills, and Tāntiā Topī crossed the valley in 1858; but the authority of the British officers was at no time seriously shaken. The small Feudatory State of MAKRAI lies in the centre of the Hardā *tahsīl*.

Archaeology.

The archaeological remains are unimportant. The island of Jogā, picturesquely situated in the Narbadā near Handiā, has a fort and is supposed to be the site of an old cantonment, remains of masonry wells and buildings being found. At Khatāma, ten miles from the Itārsi railway station, there is a cave dedicated to Mahādeo, consisting of a plain rectangular room with an enclosed shrine, the front of the cave being supported by four pillars. Bāgra contains an old fort ascribed to Hoshang Shāh Ghorī.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 467,191; (1891) 497,487; (1901) 449,165. Up to 1891 development was rapid in the eastern portion of the District, where large tracts of land had long been out of cultivation, but slower in the western *tahsīls*, which were already fully populated. In 1896 a strip of territory on the east of the Hardā *tahsīl*, 572 square miles in area and containing 32,458 persons, was transferred to Nimār, and the figures of previous enumerations have been adjusted to allow for this[1]. The decrease of population in the present area of Hoshangābād, during the last decade, was at the rate of

[1] In 1904, 38 villages with an area of 51 square miles and a population of 2,580 persons were transferred from the Hardā *tahsīl* to Nimār District, and also 293 square miles of the Kālībhīt reserved forest. The adjusted District figures of area and population are 3,676 square miles and 446,585 persons.

nearly 10 per cent., and the District suffered from partial or total failures of crops in six years of the decade. The District contains six towns—HARDĀ, HOSHANGĀBĀD, SEONĪ-MĀLWĀ, SOHĀGPUR, ITĀRSI, and PACHMARHĪ—and 1,334 inhabited villages. The chief statistics of population according to the Census of 1901 are shown below:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of		Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
		Towns.	Villages.				
Hoshangābād .	804	2	309	125,071	156	− 9·2	5,746
Hardā . .	1,139	1	400	128,858	113	−10·5	6,694
Sohāgpur . .	1,243	2	429	125,863	101	− 9·6	5,139
Seonī-Mālwā .	490	1	196	66,793	136	−12·0	2,789
District total	3,676	6	1,334	446,585	121	− 9·8	20,368

The figures for religion show that 84 per cent. of the population are Hindus, nearly 11 per cent. Animists, and 5 per cent. Muhammadans. Of the 22,000 Muhammadans, nearly half live in towns. The majority of the population speak the Bundelī dialect of Western Hindī, but in the Hardā *tahsīl* the language presents some features of difference and is allied to the Mālwī dialect of Rājputāna. About half the Gonds and Korkūs are shown as having abandoned their own languages.

Their castes and occupations.

These tribes are fairly strongly represented in the population, Gonds numbering nearly 49,000, or 11 per cent., and Korkūs 22,500, or 5 per cent. The most important landholders are the Brāhmans (34,000), who include families from both Hindustān and the Deccan, and also the local subdivision of Nāramdeo or Narbadā Brāhmans, who are priests of the various sacred places on the Narbadā and in villages, and also to a large extent *patwāris* or village accountants. The important cultivating castes are Rājputs (28,000), Gūjars (22,000), and Raghuvansis (7,000). Most of the Rājputs are Jādons or Jaduvansis of very impure descent. Jāts, who have immigrated from Northern India, number 5,000. The menial and labouring classes are the Chamārs (20,000), Balāhis (15,000), Mehrās (12,000), and Katiās (10,000). About 61 per cent. of the whole population are returned as dependent on agriculture.

Christian missions.

Christians number 2,706, of whom 2,301 are natives. The Friends Foreign Mission Association has stations at five places in the District, with a European staff numbering 36 members.

Its converts number 1,200. Altogether 13 schools and 4 dispensaries have been established by this body; and in their workshops at Rasuliā near Hoshangābād, and at Lehī near Seonī, numerous trades are taught. The Foreign Christian Missionary Society has stations at Hardā and Timurnī, and supports a high school and middle school at the former place, besides two dispensaries and a leper asylum.

General agricultural conditions.

The prevailing soil of the District is the rich black alluvial loam of great depth and fertility which is characteristic of the Narbadā valley. The average depth is estimated at 10 feet, but in many places it exceeds 30 feet. Inferior soil is usually met with in undulating fields which have been denuded of the finer particles by scouring, or where the black soil is mixed with limestone pebbles or sand. A variety of sandy soil called *sihār*, which is formed from sandstone rock, produces only autumn crops, but responds to irrigation. The black soil of the Hardā and Seonī-Mālwā *tahsīls* is the most fertile, and that of Sohāgpur the least, being especially subject to deterioration by the action of the numerous rivers which intersect the *tahsīl*, and wash down sandy deposits from the hills. A small area of first-rate land round Pachlaorā and Sobhāpur must, however, be excepted. *Sihār* or regular sandy soil is also more common here than elsewhere. In the whole District the different kinds of black soil cover about 88 per cent. and sandy soil about 12 per cent. of the cultivated area. Wheat is generally grown in unembanked fields and without manure or rotation. When a field shows signs of exhaustion, gram is sown for a year or two, as this crop exercises a recuperative effect on the soil. As a rule autumn crops are grown only on the inferior soils, which will not support spring-crop grains; but the case of *jowār*, which is now sown on black soil, is an exception to this.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

[1] Of the whole area of the District, 173 square miles are comprised in estates held on *jāgīrdāri* tenure; 73 square miles, formerly Government forest, are in process of settlement on the *ryotwāri* system; and 103 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue from Government. An area of 22 square miles has been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules. The remaining area is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri*

[1] The agricultural statistics in this paragraph relate to the year 1903-4. In 1904 the area of Government forest was reduced to 922 square miles by transfer of the Kālībhīt tract. In the statistics, 96 square miles of waste land which have not been cadastrally surveyed are excluded from the total area of the District.

tenure. The principal statistics of cultivation in 1903-4 are shown below, in square miles :—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Hoshangābād . .	804	355	1	277	84
Hardā . . .	1,139	521	1	315	279
Sohāgpur . .	1,243	397	1	347	433
Seonī-Mālwā . .	490	232	...	138	126
Total	3,676	1,505	3	1,077	922

Practically all the available land in the open country has been brought under the plough, and with the exception of a few isolated tracts there is little scope for extension of cultivation. A considerable quantity of land is under new and old fallow, the proportion amounting normally to about a fifth of the area occupied, and at present, owing to agricultural depression, to nearly 27 per cent. Fields are frequently, however, left fallow for the purpose of affording grazing to cattle. Wheat is the staple crop, with an area of 689 square miles, or 49 per cent. of the cropped area, while those next in importance are gram covering 200 square miles, *jowār* 56, *til* 79, and the small millets *kodon* and *kutkī* 94. The excessive disasters which have befallen the wheat crop, and the greater expense of its cultivation in view of the impoverished condition of the cultivators, have caused a decrease in the area under wheat. Only about 20 square miles are normally double cropped, the usual method being to get a catch-crop of pulse from an embanked wheat-field during the monsoon season. The betel-vine gardens of Sohāgpur deserve mention. The leaf grown here has a good reputation and is sent outside the District.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

The principal agricultural improvement is the embankment of fields for wheat. Some embankments have been made experimentally by Government, and a few leading landowners have adopted this method. The cultivation of cotton has increased in recent years. An agricultural farm has been started at Hoshangābād, for the demonstration of improved methods of wheat cultivation. An American winnowing machine has been introduced, and several have been sold to the cultivators. During the ten years following 1894 about Rs. 28,000 was borrowed under the Land Improvement Loans Act, and 3·75 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

The cattle used in the District are to a large extent imported from the Native States of Indore, Gwalior, and Narsinghgarh, which occupy the Mālwā plateau. The fair of Sānkha in

Narsinghgarh is the great market at which they are purchased, and they are commonly known as Sānkha bullocks. They are large, strong, and sluggish, and generally white in colour. Cattle are also brought to a less extent from Nimār, this breed being preferred for use in carts as they are light and active. The cattle bred in Hoshangābād itself are inferior to those imported. Buffaloes are not used for cultivation, but those agriculturists who can afford it keep buffalo cows for the production of *ghī*, which is an article of export. A Government cattle farm has recently been opened at Hoshangābād. The number of ponies has diminished in recent years.

Irrigation. The area irrigated from tanks is insignificant, consisting in 1903-4 of little more than 2,000 acres, which are mainly under vegetables and garden crops. In 1899-1900 it rose to 4,000 acres. A few hundred acres of wheat are also irrigated by means of wells. It is believed that the application of well-irrigation to wheat might be profitably extended. The practice of embanking wheat-fields, which may be considered a method of irrigation, is also growing; and though the crop in an embanked field is more liable to rust, this disadvantage is held to be more than counterbalanced by the increased out-turn, the saving in seed, and the greater facility in cultivation. The scope for tank-irrigation is limited.

Forests. Government forests in 1903-4 covered 922 square miles, or 25 per cent. of the total area of the District. The forests are found almost entirely on the undulating and hilly country of the Sātpurās, which bounds the Narbadā valley to the south. Situated at heights ranging from 1,200 to 4,000 feet above the sea, the character of the forests varies with both the elevation and the nature of the soil. On the dry rocky peaks and plateaux, especially when of sandstone formation, the principal species is *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), mixed with stunted growths of other species. The middle and lower slopes of the hill belt form stretches of flat and undulating land fit for cultivation, alternating with mixed forest, the principal trees of which are teak and *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), with other less valuable species. These forests contain frequent patches of grass land without trees, owing to the former practice of *barrā* or shifting cultivation and unrestricted fellings. Lastly, on the alluvial flats along rivers or on patches of red stony soil in the plains there is almost pure teak forest. Bamboos are fairly plentiful. The local consumption of forest produce comprises principally firewood, inferior timber, bamboos, and grass, while the exports consist of teak poles and scantlings, and bamboos. The

demand is principally from Khāndesh and Berār. The forest revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 74,000, of which Rs. 28,000 was realized from sales of timber, Rs. 7,400 from fuel, and Rs. 14,000 from grass.

Minerals. No mines are worked in Hoshangābād. Argentiferous galena occurs at Jogā, and some old mines known locally as Chāndi katān are still to be seen there. The excavations are in two parallel lines on a band of transition limestone. Silver exists in the galena to the extent of 21 ounces to the ton. At Bāgra an attempt was made to mine lead some years ago, but the metal was not found in sufficient quantities to make the undertaking profitable. Good red and white building stone is obtained near Hoshangābād town and Dhāndīwāra, and is exported and sold to railway companies.

Arts and manufactures. Most of the cloth worn in the District is still woven locally, though mill-spun thread is solely used. The principal centres are Sobhāpur and Nāharkolā. *Tasar* silk was formerly woven in Sohāgpur, but the industry is now extinct. There is a considerable dyeing industry at Sohāgpur, the water of the river Palakmāti, which flows by the town, being considered to have special qualities. Foreign dyes have now supplanted the indigenous madder and safflower. Considerable quantities of cloth are imported from the mills and dyed locally. Indigo from Northern India is also used, and castor oil is brought from Ahmadābād for use in dyeing. Brass-working is carried on at Hoshangābād, Handiā, and Bābai. Ornamental iron betel-nut cutters made at Timurnī are exported to other Districts. Bamboo walking-sticks are made at Hoshangābād. One cotton-ginning factory and three ginning and pressing factories are working at Hardā, all of which have been opened since 1899. The four factories contain 136 gins and three presses, and the amount of capital invested in them is 3·15 lakhs. Nearly 500 operatives are employed.

Commerce. Wheat, *til*, linseed, and cotton are the staple exports of agricultural produce, and teak and other timber and myrabolams of forest produce. The exports of wheat have largely declined in recent years. The teak of Rājāborāri and Borī is the best in the Central Provinces. *Ghī* is also exported to a considerable extent. Among minor articles are honey from the Pachmarhī hills, building and paving stone, brass vessels from Handiā, and bamboo walking-sticks from Hoshangābād. *Mahuā* is sent to Khandwā for the manufacture of country liquor. Salt comes from Ahmadābād and in small quantities from the Sāmbhar Lake, sugar from Mirzāpur and the Mauritius,

gur from Betūl and Berār, tobacco from Muzaffarpur, and rice from Chhattīsgarh, as the quantity grown locally is insufficient for consumption. Itārsi, Bābai, Handiā, Sobhāpur, and Bankheri are the chief weekly markets. Rahatgaon is a special market for timber.

Railways and roads. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway traverses the entire length of the District from west to east, with a length of 122 miles and 22 stations within its limits. At Itārsi the Indian Midland section branches off to the north and passes Hoshangābād town. Owing to its long narrow shape, nearly the whole District is thus within twenty miles of a railway. The principal trade routes are the Itārsi-Betūl, Hardā-Handiā, Hardā-Betūl, Pipariā-Chhindwāra, and Pipariā-Sandiā roads. The District has 120 miles of metalled and 225 miles of unmetalled roads, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 52,000. The Public Works department has charge of 177 miles of the most important roads, and the District council of the remainder. There are avenues of trees on 96 miles.

Famine. Up to 1892 it was recorded that the agricultural population had been severely distressed in only six out of the preceding 220 years. On three of these occasions the distress was due wholly, and on one occasion partially, to political disturbances and the incursions of the Pindāris; while in the remaining two years, 1832 and 1888, the wheat crop was blighted by excessive rain. In spite of the abnormally small rainfall in 1868–9 there was no famine, the late rain in September and the capacity of the black cotton soil to retain moisture giving a fair wheat harvest. It is a local saying that the District is under the special protection of Mahādeo and may suffer from excess, but never from deficiency, of rainfall. In 1894 and 1895 untimely rain in the autumn and cold season produced rust in the wheat, and the harvests were very poor. The rains of 1895 stopped prematurely, and the spring crops were poor; and this was followed in 1896 by a cessation of the monsoon at the end of August, and an out-turn of only one-third of the normal. Famine conditions prevailed from November, 1896, to December, 1897, 69,000 persons, or 14 per cent. of the population, being in receipt of assistance in April and the whole expenditure amounting to 16 lakhs. In 1899–1900 the monsoon again failed completely, and both harvests were destroyed. There was severe famine throughout 1900, the numbers in receipt of assistance rising in July to 118,000 persons, or nearly 24 per cent. of the population, and the total expenditure being 20 lakhs. The railway embankment

was doubled along a certain length, and several useful feeder roads were constructed.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner has a staff of four executive Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into four *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The Hardā and Seonī-Mālwā *tahsīls* form a subdivision with a Subdivisional officer residing at Hardā, while Pachmarhī has a *tahsīldār* and a Cantonment Magistrate. The Forest officer belongs to the Imperial Service, and the Executive Engineer of the Hoshangābād division, comprising the Hoshangābād, Nimār, and Betūl Districts, is stationed at Hoshangābād town.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and three Subordinate Judges, and a Munsif at each *tahsīl*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nerbudda Division has jurisdiction in Hoshangābād. Litigation is heavy, and at present consists almost entirely of suits for the recovery of loans on the security of valuables or immovable property. The District is almost free from professional criminals, but owing to its proximity to Native States is liable to raids by gangs of dacoits. Opium smuggling over the long border adjoining the foreign territory is also very common and rarely detected. Cases of cattle-lifting are not infrequent.

Land revenue administration.

During the early period of our administration the District did not include Hardā. Several short-term settlements followed on the cession in 1818, which in Hoshangābād as in the other northern Districts were characterized by the mistake of over-assessment. After successive reductions of the revenue a twenty years' settlement was made by Major Ouseley in 1836, at which a moderate demand was fixed, the share of the Government being 66 per cent. of the 'assets.' On the expiration of the twenty years, a survey of the District preparatory to resettlement was begun in 1855, but operations had to be suspended on the outbreak of the Mutiny. The settlement was completed in 1865, being made by Mr. (now Sir Charles A.) Elliott, whose Report is one of the most interesting works relating to the Central Provinces. The revenue payable by the District, including Hardā, before resettlement, was 3 lakhs, which was raised to 4·24 lakhs, or by 37 per cent., the period of the settlement being thirty years. On this occasion proprietary rights were conferred on the village headmen. During the currency of the settlement the general wealth and prosperity of the people increased very largely. Shortly after its conclusion the opening of the railway brought all parts of the District

within easy distance of a market for their produce. Prices rose with a bound and the seasons were almost uniformly favourable. At the expiry of the thirty years the area under cultivation had increased by 38 per cent., the prices of grain had risen by 75 to 100 per cent., and the total rental of the tenants had been raised by the landowners by nearly 5 lakhs. The District was resettled between 1892 and 1896, the result being to increase the revenue by 3·68 lakhs, or 78 per cent. on the previous demand. For some years before and after the new settlement came into force the District was visited by a succession of failures of the valuable spring crops, on which its prosperity depends. The circumstances of the people were in consequence entirely altered, and while there has been a large decrease in the quantity and deterioration in the value of the crops sown, the cultivators have become involved in debt. Substantial relief was accordingly given, by the reduction of the revenue demand by 2·19 lakhs for a period of three years from 1901–2, and by Rs. 82,000 for the full period of settlement. The term of the new settlement is from twelve to fourteen years in different areas, a shorter period than twenty years having been adopted, in order to produce a regular rotation of District settlements. The receipts of revenue at different periods are shown below, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue . .	4,40	4,96	4,70	6,85
Total revenue . .	8,26	11,10	8,80	10,91

Local boards and municipalities.

The management of local affairs, outside municipal areas, is entrusted to a District council and four local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903–4 was Rs. 78,000, while the expenditure on education was Rs. 30,000 and on civil works Rs. 31,000. HOSHANGĀBĀD, SOHĀGPUR, SEONĪ-MĀLWĀ, HARDĀ, and PACHMARHĪ are municipal towns.

Police and jails.

The police force, in charge of the District Superintendent, consists of 581 officers and men, including 74 railway police and 10 mounted constables, besides 1,363 village watchmen for 1,340 inhabited towns and villages. Hoshangābād town has a District jail, with accommodation for 168 prisoners, including 12 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 116.

Education.

In respect of education the District stands fifth in the

Province, 4·6 per cent. of the population (8·8 males and 0·3 females) being able to read and write. The proportion of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 12 per cent. Statistics of the number of pupils are as follows: (1880–1) 3,778; (1890–1) 5,363; (1900–1) 8,039; (1903–4) 8,403, including 615 female scholars. The educational institutions comprise two high schools, five English and seven vernacular middle schools, and 129 primary schools. The high school at Hardā, opened in 1900, is maintained by the Foreign Christian Missionary Society of America. The District contains nine girls' schools, including a vernacular middle school at Hoshangābād town, and eight primary schools. Ten boys' and five girls' schools are managed by missionary bodies. The total expenditure on education in 1903–4 was Rs. 74,000, of which Rs. 60,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 8,000 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries.

The District has 11 dispensaries, with accommodation for 102 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 68,292, of whom 756 were in-patients, and 1,528 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 19,000, mainly from Provincial and Local funds.

Vaccination.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns of Hoshangābād, Hardā, Sohāgpur, and Seonī. The percentage of successful vaccinations in 1903–4 was 29 per 1,000 of the District population, which is below the Provincial average.

[C. A. Elliott, *Settlement Report*, 1867; F. G. Sly, *Settlement Report*, 1905.]

Hoshangābād Tahsīl.—*Tahsīl* of Hoshangābād District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 18′ and 22° 52′ N. and 77° 30′ and 78° 5′ E., with an area of 804 square miles. The population in 1901 was 125,071, compared with 137,811 in 1891. The density is 156 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains two towns, Hoshangābād (population, 14,940), the head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District, and Itārsi (5,769); and 309 inhabited villages. Excluding 84 square miles of Government forest, 65 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 355 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,88,000, and for cesses Rs. 17,000. The *tahsīl* consists of two well-marked tracts: on the north the Narbadā valley, a level open black soil plain with a gentle slope from the Mahādeo hills to the Narbadā river; and on the south the elevated Bordhā plateau, covered with light sandy soil and surrounded by hills.

Hardā Tahsīl.—Western *tahsīl* of Hoshangābād District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 53′ and 22° 35′ N. and 76° 47′ and 77° 31′ E., with an area, in 1901, of 1,483 square miles. The population in that year was 131,438, compared with 143,839 in 1891. In 1904, 38 villages and the Kālībhīt tract of 'reserved' forest were transferred to Nimār, and the revised totals of area and population are 1,139 square miles and 128,858 persons. The density is 113 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, HARDĀ (population, 16,300), the head-quarters, and 400 inhabited villages. Excluding 279 square miles of Government forest, 78 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 521 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 2,28,000, and for cesses Rs. 22,000. The northern portion of the *tahsīl* consists of a level plain fully cultivated, with black soil of great depth and fertility. In the west there are some low hills, while to the south the Sātpurā range runs through the *tahsīl*. The small Feudatory State of Makrai lies in the centre.

Sohāgpur Tahsīl.—Eastern *tahsīl* of Hoshangābād District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 10′ and 22° 59′ N. and 77° 55′ and 78° 44′ E., with an area of 1,243 square miles. The population in 1901 was 125,863, compared with 139,936 in 1891. The density per square mile is 101 persons. The *tahsīl* contains two towns, SOHĀGPUR (population, 7,420), the head-quarters, and PACHMARHĪ (3,020); and 429 inhabited villages. Excluding 433 square miles of Government forest, 61 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 397 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,61,000, and for cesses Rs. 15,000. The northern portion of the *tahsīl* is an open black soil plain, much scoured by the action of the numerous streams flowing down to the Narbadā. A low range of hills separates the valley of the Narbadā from that of the Denwā, and south of this again rise the masses of the Sātpurā Hills, culminating to the east in the Pachmarhī plateau. Sohāgpur is the poorest and least fertile *tahsīl* in the District. It contains two *jāgīrdāri* estates and part of a third.

Seonī-Mālwā Tahsīl.—*Tahsīl* of Hoshangābād District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 13′ and 22° 39′ N. and 77° 13′ and 77° 44′ E., with an area of 490 square miles. The population in 1901 was 66,793, compared with 75,901 in 1891. The density is 136 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl*

has one town, SEONĪ-MĀLWĀ (population, 7,531), the head-quarters, and 196 inhabited villages. Excluding 126 square miles of Government forest, 75 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 232 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,29,000, and for cesses Rs. 12,000. The *tahsīl*, which is a very small one, consists of a highly fertile black soil plain adjoining the Narbadā and a strip of hilly country to the south.

Hardā Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Hoshangābād District, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 21′ N. and 77° 6′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 417 miles from Bombay. Population (1901), 16,300. Hardā is the tenth town in the Province in size. It is comparatively modern, Handiā, an old Muhammadan town, 12 miles distant, having formerly been the principal place in this part of the valley. It was constituted a municipality in 1869. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 36,000. In 1903–4 they amounted to Rs. 66,000, of which Rs. 50,000 was derived from octroi. The town is supplied with water from the Anjan river, a mile and a half distant, but the works are at present incomplete. Infiltration and pumping wells were sunk in the river in 1896; but owing to the famine in that year, the Government loan which the municipality required for their completion could not be allotted. In 1900, when there was a scarcity of water, a small pump was set up in the infiltration well, and water was conveyed to some stand-pipes in the southern end of the town, and subsequently to the bathing *ghāt*. The total expenditure on the works has been Rs. 52,000. Hardā is an important commercial centre for the export of grain. Four cotton-ginning factories, three of which also contain presses, have been opened since 1899. Their combined capital is 3·15 lakhs, and in 1904 they cleaned and pressed cotton to the value of Rs. 56,000. The town also contains railway workshops. Local handicrafts include the manufacture of brass vessels and of thick cloths for the tops of carts, and the preparation and stuffing of skins. There is a printing press with English and Hindī type. A Subdivisional officer for the two *tahsīls* of Hardā and Seonī-Mālwā is stationed here. The Foreign Christian Missionary Society supports, with the assistance of Government grants, a high school with 21 pupils, and an English middle school. There are three dispensaries, two of which are maintained by the railway company and the mission.

Hoshangābād Town.—Head-quarters of the District and *tahsīl* of the same name, and also of the Nerbudda Division, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 46′ N. and 77° 44′ E., on the Indian Midland section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 12 miles from Itārsi junction and 476 miles from Bombay. The town is picturesquely placed along the southern bank of the Narbadā river, while north of the river stretch the Vindhyan Hills in Bhopāl territory. Population (1901), 14,940. The name is derived from Hoshang Shāh, king of Mālwā, who is said to have founded Hoshangābād in the fifteenth century. In 1802 it was occupied by Wazīr Muhammad, the well-known minister of Bhopāl. He was defeated by a Marāthā army outside Sohāgpur and hotly pursued into Hoshangābād. While making a stand outside the town a horse was killed under him; and he then mounted his celebrated crop-tailed horse, and escaped by leaping him over the battlements of the fort. A rude stone figure of a horse still marks the spot, and is locally venerated. Hoshangābād was taken by the Marāthās in 1809 after a three months' siege, and was occupied by British troops in 1817. It is now the head-quarters of the Commissioner and Divisional Judge, Nerbudda Division, and an Executive Engineer, besides containing the usual District staff. Hoshangābād was created a municipality in 1869. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 29,000. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 24,000, the principal item being octroi. The town has some local trade, and a brass-working industry is carried on. Bamboo walking-sticks are made and exported, and excellent building stone is obtained from a quarry in the vicinity. There is a printing press. Hoshangābād has a high school with 90 pupils, and several other schools. It is the head-quarters of the Friends Foreign Mission, which supports numerous medical and educational institutions, and has a technical school in a village near the town. Other institutions are a public dispensary and police hospital, and a veterinary dispensary. A Government agricultural farm and cattle-farm have recently been started.

Itārsi.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Hoshangābād, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 37′ N. and 77° 47′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Jubbulpore, 464 miles from Bombay and 936 from Calcutta. It is also the junction for the Indian Midland section to Cawnpore and Agra. Its population in 1901 was 5,769, and it is rapidly increasing in importance, the number having nearly doubled during the previous decade. Itārsi is the leading goods station in

Hoshangābād District, receiving not only a considerable share of the local produce, but also nearly the whole of that of Betūl District. It has a large weekly cattle market, at which numbers of cattle are sold for slaughter. Itārsi contains an English middle school, maintained by the Friends Foreign Mission, and two primary schools.

Pachmarhī.—Town and sanitarium in the Sohāgpur *tahsīl* of Hoshangābād District, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 28′ N. and 78° 26′ E., on a plateau of the Sātpurā range, 32 miles from Pipariā station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Pachmarhī is connected with Pipariā by a metalled road, along which there is a mail tonga-service. The plateau of the Sātpurā Hills on which the town stands, at an elevation of just over 3,500 feet, has an area of 23 square miles, the greater part of which is covered with forest. The census population in March, 1901, was 3,020 persons; but at this time of year Pachmarhī is comparatively empty, and it is probable that during the season the number of residents is doubled. The plateau, which is Government property, was acquired in 1869 and 1871, and soon afterwards the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces began to reside here during the summer months. Its advantages as a sanitarium were first discovered by Captain Forsyth, the author of 'The Highlands of Central India,' in 1857; and the name of the shooting box which he built for himself on the plateau, and called Bison Lodge, is still preserved by a house erected subsequently on the same site. The name is a corruption of *panch mathi* or 'five huts,' and properly belongs to a small hill in the open part of the plateau in which five caves have been constructed. There is some reason for supposing that these are Buddhist, but Brāhmanical tradition has annexed them as one of the places at which the five Pāndava brothers sojourned during their wanderings. The prevailing rock is a coarse gritty sandstone of great depth, which succumbs readily to denudation; and the steep ravines and gorges that have been formed by the action of water produce some strikingly picturesque pieces of scenery. Of the 23 square miles of which the plateau is composed, 19 are classed as forest. This area is managed principally with a view to the preservation and enhancement of the natural beauties of scenery. The forest growth is generally thin and interspersed with numerous grass glades of park-like appearance. *Sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) is the principal timber tree, and there is also a quantity of *harrā* (*Terminalia Chebula*) and *jāmun* (*Eugenia Jambolana*). Several peaks fringe the plateau,

of which the principal are Dhūpgarh (4,454 feet), Mahādeo (4,384 feet), and Chaurāgarh (4,317 feet). Owing to its moderate elevation, Pachmarhī affords only a partial relief from the heat of the plains. The mean temperature in May, the hottest month, is 85°, and the maximum occasionally rises to over 100°. Still, except for a short period during the middle of the day, the heat is never oppressive. During the second half of September and October, after the cessation of the rains, the climate is delightfully cool and bracing, the mean temperature in the latter month being 69°. The rainfall is heavy, averaging 77 inches annually, nearly the whole of which is received between June and September.

Pachmarhī was constituted a municipality in 1886. The municipal receipts and expenditure during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 3,700 and Rs. 3,500 respectively. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 28,000, including a Government grant of Rs. 22,000. There is also a cantonment, which includes five square miles on the eastern or Pipariā side of the plateau. The receipts and expenditure of the cantonment fund during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 4,200, and in 1903-4 were Rs. 14,000 and Rs. 12,000 respectively, the former figure including a grant of Rs. 6,000 from the Military Department. No regular garrison is located at Pachmarhī, but a convalescent dépôt is maintained for eight months in the year for the British regiment stationed at Jubbulpore. Pachmarhī is also the site for a school of musketry; and three classes for the instruction of officers, each lasting for two months, are held annually.

Seonī-Mālwā Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Hoshangābād District, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 27′ N. and 77° 29′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 443 miles from Bombay. Population (1901), 7,531. The town was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 11,000. In 1903-4 they were Rs. 9,000, derived mainly from octroi. Seonī-Mālwā was formerly the most important trading town in the District, but it has been supplanted in recent years by Hardā and Itārsi. A number of betel-vine gardens are situated near the town, in which a special variety of leaf is grown. Seonī-Mālwā possesses an English middle school and a dispensary.

Sohāgpur Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Hoshangābād District, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 42′ N. and 78° 12′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula

Railway, 494 miles from Bombay. Population (1901), 7,420. Sohāgpur was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 10,200. In 1903–4 they were Rs. 12,000, of which three-fourths was derived from octroi. A considerable export trade in grain and timber takes place from Sohāgpur; and a large proportion of the population are engaged in cotton-weaving and dyeing. The water of the river Palakmāti, on which the town stands, is considered to be especially valuable in dyeing operations. About 40 betel-vine gardens are cultivated in the vicinity of the town, and the leaf is exported to other Districts. Sohāgpur possesses an English middle school and a dispensary.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Nimār District.—District in the Nerbudda Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 5′ and 22° 25′ N. and 75° 57′ and 77° 13′ E., and occupying a strip of mixed hill and plain country at the western extremity of the Narbadā valley and of the Sātpurā plateau, abutting on Khāndesh and the Central India States. It is bounded on the north by the States of Indore and Dhār; on the west by Indore and the Khāndesh District of Bombay; on the south by Khāndesh and the Amraoti and Akola Districts of Berār; and on the east by Hoshangābād and Betūl. The present District includes only a small portion of the old historic division of Prānt Nimār, which comprised the whole Narbadā valley from the Ganjāl river on the east to the Hiranpāl or 'deer's leap' on the west, in both of which places the Vindhyan and Sātpurā ranges run down to the river. The name is considered to be derived from *nīm*, 'half,' as Nimār was supposed to be half-way down the course of the Narbadā, but in reality the District is much nearer to the mouth than to the source of the river. It may be broadly described as comprising a portion of the Narbadā valley in the north and of the Tāpti valley in the south, divided by the Sātpurā ranges crossing the District from west to east. The Narbadā forms the northern boundary of the District for most of its length, but the two forest tracts of Chāndgarh and Selāni lie north of the river. The bed of the Narbadā during the first part of its course in the District is hemmed in by high cliffs of basalt to the north, and a network of ravines to the south. At Punāsa it passes over a fall of about 40 feet in height, and 12 miles below this lies the sacred island of Māndhāta, where the hills open out and an alluvial basin commences. About 25 miles south of the Narbadā a low range of foot-hills, commencing on the western border of the Khandwā

tahsīl, traverses the District diagonally until it abuts on the river in the extreme north-east. The country lying between this range and the Narbadā is broken and uneven, and covered with forest over considerable areas. South of it lies the most fertile area of the District, comprised in the valleys of the Abnā and Suktā rivers. Both of these have an easterly course, and are tributaries of the Chhotā Tawā, which flows from south to north to join the Narbadā. This part of the District is open, and contains no forest or hill of any size; but the surface is undulating, and small valleys with a central stream fringed by palms, *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*), and mango-trees, alternate with broad ridges, some comparatively fertile, others bare and stony. To the south the main range of the Sātpurās crosses the District with a width of only about 11 miles and a generally low elevation, from which a few peaks, including that of Asīrgarh, rise conspicuously. Between this range and another to the south the Tāpti has forced a passage, and after passing through a cleft in the hills emerges into two open basins separated by the isolated hill of Samardeo. The upper of these, though fertile, is almost uncultivated, but in the lower, in a small plain of deep alluvial deposit, stands the town of Burhānpur. South of the Tāpti rises a higher ridge forming the southern face of the Sātpurās, and separating Nimār from the Berār plain. These hills are the highest in the District, and one or two of the peaks rise to over 3,000 feet. The Khandwā plain has an elevation of about 1,000 feet above the sea, and that of Burhānpur about 850 feet.

Geology. Throughout the District, except in a few spots near the Narbadā, the geological formation is the trap rock of the Deccan, which here appears to be of enormous thickness. Near the Narbadā, sandstones, limestones, and other strata appear in places, but generally the trap is everywhere the surface rock. In the neighbourhood of the Narbadā it sometimes assumes the form of columnar basalt, forming regular polygonal pillars.

Botany. Where not under cultivation the ridges and hills are covered with jungle, sometimes a uniform thin forest of *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), with little grass and undergrowth; at other times of a general character, the principal species being teak, *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), and *anjan* (*Hardwickia binata*). This last is the commonest tree in the District. Bastard date-palms are numerous in the open country. A number of grasses occur, the most important from a commercial point of view

being *rūsa* or *tikāri* (*Andropogon Schoenanthus*), from which a valuable oil is obtained.

Tigers and leopards are found. *Sāmbar*, spotted deer, and ravine deer are fairly numerous. A few bison are found in the forests north of the Narbadā and the Tāpti valley, but they are not permitted to be shot. Numerous herds of wild dogs are very destructive to the game. Of game birds, peafowl, quail, painted partridge, and sand-grouse are the chief. Fauna.

The climate is healthy; and although the heat is severe during the summer months, the light rainfall and cool winds make the monsoon season pleasant. Climate and temperature.

The annual rainfall averages 32 inches, and, though the lightest in the Province, is excellently adapted to the rains crops of millet and cotton which are principally grown in the District. Rainfall.

Situated on the main route between Hindustān and the Deccan, and containing the fortress of Asīrgarh which commands the passage of the Sātpurās, Nimār has been at several periods of history the theatre of important events. In early times the country is believed to have been held by the Chauhān Rājputs, from whom the present Rānā of Piploda claims descent. In 1295 Alā-ud-dīn, returning from his bold raid into the Deccan, took Asīrgarh, and put all the Chauhāns to the sword, except one boy. Northern Nimār about this time came into the possession of a ruler belonging to the Bhilāla tribe, who are believed to be a mixed race of Rājputs and Bhīls. The chiefs of Māndhāta, Bhāmgarh, and Selāni trace their descent from the Bhilāla rulers. About 1387 it became subject to the Muhammadan Sultāns of Mālwā, whose capital was at Māndu on the crest of the Vindhyan range. In 1399 Nāsir Khān Fārūki, succeeding his father, who had obtained a grant of southern Nimār from the Delhi emperor, assumed independence, and established the Fārūki dynasty of Khāndesh. He captured Asīrgarh, and founded the cities of Burhānpur and Zaināhād on the opposite banks of the Tāpti in honour of two Shaikhs. The Fārūki dynasty held Khāndesh with their capital at Burhānpur for eleven generations until 1600, in which year both Nimār and Khāndesh were annexed by the emperor Akbar, who captured Asīrgarh by blockade from Bahādur Khān, the last of the Fārūkis. Northern Nimār was attached to the *Sūbah* of Mālwā, and the southern portion to that of Khāndesh. The prince Dānyāl was made governor History.

of the Deccan with his capital at Burhānpur, where he drank himself to death in 1605. Akbar and his successors did much to improve the District, which became a place of the first importance, the city of Burhānpur attaining the height of its prosperity during the reign of Shāh Jahān. In 1670 the Marāthās first invaded Khāndesh, and plundered the country up to the gates of Burhānpur, the city itself being sacked by them some years afterwards, immediately on the departure of the unwieldy army which Aurangzeb led to the conquest of the Deccan. After the assumption of the government of the Deccan by the Nizām Asaf Jāh in 1720, Nimār was the scene of frequent conflicts between his troops and those of the Peshwā, until it was ceded to the latter by different treaties between 1740 and 1760. It was subsequently transferred, with the exception of the *parganas* of Kānāpur and Beriā in the south of the District, to Sindhia and Holkar. The curious and very inconvenient interlacing of the boundaries with those of Holkar's territory in this tract is a relic of the diplomacy of the Peshwā, who retained in his own possession certain villages which would give him control of the fords over the Narbadā. From 1800 until the close of the Marāthā and Pindāri Wars in 1818, Nimār was subjected to an unceasing round of invasion and plunder, still known as 'the time of trouble,' the traces of which are even now visible in the deserted state of fertile tracts once thickly populated. It was plundered impartially by the invading troops of Holkar and those which Sindhia gathered to protect it, while the Pindāris may be said to have been at home in Nimār, their chief camps being located in the dense wilds of Handiā between the Narbadā and the Vindhyan range. In 1817 the Pindāris were dispersed by the British troops, their leader Chītū being killed by a tiger in his jungle hiding-place. The tracts of Kānāpur and Beriā were ceded by the Peshwā in 1818, and the north of the District came under British management by the treaty with Sindhia of 1823. In 1860 these tracts, as well as the Zaināhād and Manjrod *parganas*, with Burhānpur, were ceded by Sindhia in full sovereignty. In 1864 Nimār was attached to the Central Provinces, and the District headquarters, which had previously been at Mandleshwar, were removed to Khandwā as offering a more central position for the new District. During the Mutiny, Asīrgarh and Burhānpur were garrisoned by a detachment of the Gwalior Contingent who were disaffected. The District officer, Major Keatinge, collected a local force and held a pass on the southern road,

until a detachment of Bombay infantry came up and disarmed the Gwalior troops. In 1858 Tāntiā Topī traversed the District with a numerous body of starving followers. Considerable plundering occurred, and several police stations and public buildings, including those at Khandwā, were burnt; but the people remained unaffected.

Archaeology.

KHANDWĀ was formerly a centre of the Jain community, and many finely-carved pieces of stone-work taken from Jain temples may be seen in the houses and buildings of the town. At BURHĀNPUR are two mosques erected in the sixteenth century, one of which is a fine building decorated with stone carvings. MĀNDHĀTA is well-known as containing one of the twelve most celebrated *lingams* of Siva, and a number of temples have been constructed here at different periods.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations has been as follows: (1881) 252,937; (1891) 285,944; (1901) 327,035[1]. Substantial increases of 13 and 14 per cent., respectively, have occurred in the last two decades, the fortunes of Nimār between 1891 and 1901 having differed materially from those of the rest of the Province. There has been considerable immigration during the last decade from Central India, Berār, and Bombay. The District contains two towns, KHANDWĀ, the head-quarters, and BURHĀNPUR; and 922 inhabited villages. The density of population is only 77 persons per square mile, or 65 if the towns are excluded. Large areas of the District are uncultivable, while others, once populated, have never recovered from the havoc wrought at the commencement of last century. The principal statistics of population, according to the Census of 1901, are given below:—

Tahsil.	Area in square miles.	Number of		Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
		Towns.	Villages.				
Khandwā	2,046	1	437	181,684	89	+ 11.5	11,954
Burhānpur	1,138	1	194	92,933	82	+ 14.2	6,100
Harsūd	1,089	...	291	54,998	51	+ 24.6	1,352
District total	4,273	2	922	329,615	77	+ 14.2	19,406

[1] In 1904, 38 villages with an area of 51 square miles and a population of 2,580 persons, together with 293 square miles of Government forest, were transferred from Hoshangābād District to the Harsūd *tahsīl*. The corrected totals of area and population are 4,273 square miles and 329,615 persons.

The figures for religion show that 86 per cent. of the population are Hindus, 10 per cent. Muhammadans, and nearly 3 per cent. Animists. The proportion of Muhammadans is larger in Nimār than in any other District in the Province. Many of the aboriginal Bhīls nominally profess this religion, while there is a large settlement of poor Muhammadans in Burhānpur. The languages of Nimār are very diverse. A special local speech, Nimāri, akin to the Mālwī dialect of Rājputāna, but influenced by Marāthī, is spoken by the majority of the rural inhabitants of the north of the District. The Bhīls have a dialect of mixed Hindī and Gujarātī. About 14 per cent. of the population, principally in the Burhānpur *tahsīl*, speak the Khāndesh dialect of Marāthī, 14,000 of the Muhammadans, or 4 per cent. of the population, speak Urdū, while more than half of the Korkūs have retained their own language.

Their castes and occupations.

The population, as is shown by the varieties of speech, has been recruited from different sources. There is a strong Marāthā element in the Burhānpur *tahsīl*, which was formerly part of Khāndesh. The hills are inhabited by the Bhīls of Central India and the Korkūs of the Sātpurās, while Rājpūts, Muhammadans, and Gūjars from Northern India have colonized the Khandwā plain. The principal landholding castes are Rājputs (28,000), Brāhmans (15,000), Baniās (10,000), Kunbīs (27,000), and Gūjars (20,000). The Rājputs of Nimār are for the most part of very impure blood, and are locally designated as *chotī-tur*, which has this signification. The Brāhmans belong to two local subdivisions, called Nāgar and Nāramdeo. The latter derive their name from living on the Narbadā river, while the former are village priests, accountants, landlords, and schoolmasters. The best cultivating castes are the Gūjars and Kunbīs. The former especially constitute an industrious class of peasant proprietors, skilled in the irrigation of their fields by shallow wells, by which method they obtain two crops in the year. The Bhilālas (10,000), who are considered to be descended from the Aryan Rājput and the aboriginal Bhīl, have already been mentioned. They include a number of old proprietary families, but, except for these, are scarcely to be distinguished in appearance from a purely Dravidian tribe, while they bear a very bad character for dishonesty and drunkenness. The same may be said about the Bhīls (22,000), who nominally profess Islām. In practice they, and more especially their women, retain the primitive beliefs of their forefathers. The Korkūs (31,000) of Nimār are somewhat more civilized and industrious than their fellow tribesmen of

the central Sātpurās. They occupy chiefly the fertile lands in the otherwise depopulated Tāpti valley, are fairly supplied with ploughing and breeding cattle, and raise wheat, gram, and rice by regular tillage. Their villages are built of close bamboo wattle-work, with almost Swiss-like neatness. They habitually carry a small bamboo flute like a pen behind the ear, on which they play when drunk, or when propitiating the village deities. About 67 per cent. of the population of the District are supported by agriculture.

Christian missions.

Christians number 1,399, including 1,187 natives. These latter are mainly converts of the Methodist Episcopal and Roman Catholic missions, which have stations at Khandwā. The former supports an orphanage, some schools, and a village in which the children are trained to agriculture. The latter has a Convent school at Khandwā, and several others in the interior, and also owns a village.

General agricultural conditions.

The soil of the District is formed from disintegrated trap rock and is partly alluvial. Along the flat banks of streams it is a rich black mould, from 4 to 10 feet deep, and extremely tenacious of moisture. In ordinary years it produces two crops. Next to this in excellence is the ordinary black soil of the Narbadā valley, which will produce wheat or other spring crops without irrigation. It is not found over large tracts in Nimār, owing to the uneven nature of the country, but most villages have a small patch of it, and even the desolate upper Tāpti valley contains a considerable area of this class of soil. On the summits of the plateaux and level high-lying ground is found a shallow brown soil resting on gravel, and suited for the rains crops, which do not require large quantities of water. This covers more than half the cultivated area, and bears the staple crops of the District, *jowār* and cotton. There is comparatively little inferior soil.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

No less than 330 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue, the amount thus assigned being Rs. 60,000. A special grant of a few villages for a term of years has been made to persons who assisted in the capture of the notorious dacoit Tāntiā Bhīl. More than 550 square miles are held on *ryotwāri* tenure, paying a revenue of Rs. 1,02,000; part of this area is still shown as Government forest and managed by the Forest department. The remaining area is held on the ordinary tenures, 31 per cent. being in the possession of *mālik-makbūzas* or plot-proprietors, and 52 per cent. in that of occupancy tenants. The chief statistics of cultivation in 1903–4 are shown on the next page, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Khandwā	2,046	713	18	313	671
Burhānpur	1,138	241	1	162	737
Harsūd	1,089	276	1	342	543
Total	4,273	1,230	20	817	1,951

The staple crops are cotton and *jowār*, covering respectively 410 and 264 square miles. Of other crops wheat occupies 60 square miles, gram 36, rice 12, *til* 153, and pulses 105. Of special crops there are a few hundred acres under *gānja* (*Cannabis sativa*), which is grown by licence under the direct supervision of Government, and provides the Province with its supply of this drug; a number of betel-vine gardens are cultivated, and several acres of vineyards formerly existed on the Asīrgarh hills, but viticulture is now on the decline. The vines produce a fair-sized white grape of a somewhat acid flavour. Pomegranates are also grown in Nimār.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

During the last thirty-five years the occupied area has expanded by 50 per cent. There is still room for extension of cultivation, but mainly on poorer soils. The chief feature of recent years has been the increase of cotton; in the neighbourhood of Burhānpur this crop is so profitable that the cultivators do not grow enough *jowār* for their own food, and it has to be imported from Berār. The variety of cotton called Dhārwāri was obtained from Berār in 1892, and has since largely ousted the local variety previously grown. Loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act amounted to only Rs. 13,000 from 1893 to 1903, but in the following year Rs. 23,000 was advanced. Under the Agriculturists' Loans Act more than Rs. 80,000 was advanced during the decade ending 1904.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

Cattle are largely bred in the District, mainly in the hills of the north and south. The Khandwā bullock is small, with short ears and dewlaps, and generally red or brown in colour, forming a striking contrast to the large white oxen of Mālwā and Gujarāt. For their size the local breed are powerfully built, and are light, active, and enduring, while they have the strong hoofs which are essential in a stony country. They trot well, and the marriage processions of the Gūjars, who prize good cattle, generally terminate in a race on the homeward journey. Buffaloes are bred locally; and well-to-do tenants frequently keep buffalo cows for the sake of their milk, from which *ghī* is manufactured, and also for the manure which they

afford. The young bulls are sold in Khāndesh, or allowed to die, as they are not used for cultivation. Goats are largely kept by Muhammadans for their milk and for food, and sheep also in the Burhānpur *tahsīl.* Their manure is sold, but blankets are not made in any numbers.

About 20 square miles are irrigated, of which 3,000 acres are garden crops or orchards, and the remainder the spring crops, wheat, gram, and lentils (*masūr*). The application of an artificial water-supply to spring crops is a special feature of the agriculture of Nimār, found nowhere else in the Province. One reason which has been suggested for this is that the surface soil overlies rock or gravel at a slight depth, and is well drained. Nearly the whole of the irrigation is from wells, less than 200 acres being supplied from tanks or streams. There are about 2,500 temporary and nearly 2,000 masonry wells. Unfaced wells cost only about Rs. 60, and last for a number of years before the crumbling of the rock makes it necessary to face them at an expenditure of about Rs. 300. But occasionally the rock is too hard for blasting by indigenous methods. Irrigation.

Government forests cover 1,951 square miles, or 46 per cent. of the area of the District. About 1,706 square miles are 'reserved' forest; and the remainder, mainly situated in the Tāpti valley, has been assigned for disforestation when required for the extension of cultivation. The best forests are comprised in the Punāsa and Chāndgarh ranges on the banks of the Narbadā, and in the upper Tāpti valley, which contain the most valuable teak timber in the District. The Sātpurā Hills, north and south of the Tāpti, include the greater part of the remaining forest area, mainly composed of inferior species. The growth on the hill slopes is dense; but elsewhere it is generally sparse, and interspersed with numerous bare patches, the result of former shifting cultivation. The forest revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 1,50,000, almost the highest in the Province. This favourable result is not due to the excellence of the forests, but to the local demand for fuel and grazing. Fuel is exported to the cotton factories of Berār and Khāndesh, and also used in the District factories. Timber likewise is largely exported, while in 1903-4 nearly 210,000 head of cattle were taken to graze in 'reserved' forest, and the revenue realized from this source was Rs. 46,000. Forests.

Iron ores exist at Chāndgarh, Barwai, and on the Chhotā Tawā river, but they are not now worked. There are quarries of limestone near Burhānpur, and of sandstone in various places. Minerals.

Arts and manufactures.

The hand industries of the District are unimportant, the majority of the non-agricultural population being engaged in transport, commerce, or the working-up of raw cotton. Coarse country cloth is woven at Khandwā and other large villages. There are silk-weaving and gold and silver lace industries at Burhānpur, and rough glass globes lined with lead for decorating the interiors of houses are also made. In 1904 the District contained 26 cotton-ginning factories and 9 pressing factories. Most of these are at Khandwā; and there are two ginning factories and two presses at Lālbāgh, the station for Burhānpur, and ginning factories at Nimārkhedī, Jawar, and Pandhāna in the Khandwā *tahsīl*, and at Ichhāpur, Burhānpur, Shāhpur, Bahādurpur, and Aimāgird in the Burhānpur *tahsīl*. The proprietors are generally Mārwāri Baniās, Muhammadan Bohrās, or Pārsīs, but a few are Marāthā Brahmans. The large majority of the factories have been opened since 1890, and many new ones have been started within the last few years. The amount of capital invested in them is approximately 13 lakhs, and their output for 1904 was 180,965 cwt. of cotton ginned, and 202,989 cwt. pressed. A combined oil mill, timber factory, and iron foundry has been established at Khandwā with a capital of Rs. 22,000.

Commerce.

Raw cotton and cotton-seed, *til*, and *jowār* are the principal exports. Most of the *jowār* sent from Khandwā comes from Indore and the adjoining States. Other exports include *san*-hemp, timber and bamboos, flowers and seed of the *mahuā*-tree, and ground-nuts. Salt comes from Bombay, and a coarser kind from Ahmadābād, *gur* or unrefined sugar from Poona and Northern India, and tobacco from Gujarāt. Building and paving stones are obtained from Hoshangābād. The cotton trade is in the hands of Muhammadan Bhātias, and that in oilseeds is conducted by a European firm.

Railways and roads.

The Great Indian Peninsula Railway line to Jubbulpore passes through the centre of the District, with a length of 89 miles and 16 stations within its limits. From Khandwā, the Rājputāna-Mālwā metre-gauge line branches off to Indore, with a length of 29 miles and 5 stations in Nimār. There are no metalled roads except short feeders. The only made road is that from Khandwā towards Mhow, and this has now been superseded by the railway. The rocky nature of the soil permits of the maintenance of a network of passable tracks in the open country; but the communications with the upper Tāpti valley and across the passes to Berār are somewhat deficient, and are now being improved by the construction of

main roads. The total length of metalled roads is 62 miles and of unmetalled roads 117 miles. With the exception of 24 miles maintained by the District council, all are in charge of the Public Works department, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 56,000. There are avenues of trees on only one or two short lengths of road.

The first recorded famine in Nimār was in the year 1803, and was due to a failure of rain combined with the devastation caused by Sindhia's armies. It is known as the *Mahā-Kāl*, or 'great famine,' and grain sold at 1 lb. per rupee. The fertile and populous tracts of Zaināhād and Manjrod became wholly waste. The next famine occurred in 1845, caused by a failure of the monsoon, which ceased in August. There was much distress; Rs. 70,000 was expended on relief and 3 lakhs of revenue was remitted. The District was only slightly affected in 1897, distress being confined to some villages on the Hoshangābād border and to the forest tribes, and the numbers relieved never reached 4,000. In the cotton areas an excellent crop in 1895 had enriched the people. In 1899 the rainfall was extraordinarily deficient, and there was a complete failure of both harvests. The numbers on relief in July, 1900, reached 89,000, or 31 per cent. of the population, and the total expenditure was 18 lakhs. Several roads were constructed or improved, the railway embankment was widened, and forest-clearings were made in the Manjrod tract with a view to the settlement of *ryotwāri* villages. Famine.

The Deputy-Commissioner is aided by three Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into three *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*, while an additional *naib-tahsīldār* is posted to Burhānpur for the Manjrod tract. A Forest officer of the Imperial Service is usually stationed in the District, and the public works are in charge of the Executive Engineer of the Hoshangābād division, whose head-quarters are at Hoshangābād town. District subdivisions and staff.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and a Subordinate Judge, with Munsifs at Khandwā and Burhānpur, and additional Munsifs have recently been appointed to Khandwā. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nerbudda Division has superior civil and criminal jurisdiction. The tendency of the people to petty litigation is noticeable, but many suits are compromised after being filed in court. Owing to the situation of the District on the main route between Northern and Central India and the Deccan, many professional criminals Civil and criminal justice.

annually pass through it and commit dacoities, burglaries, and cattle-lifting; but very little serious crime is to be attributed to the resident population. The proximity of several Native States gives rise to a large amount of smuggling of excisable articles.

Land revenue administration.

Nimār is the only District in the Central Provinces in which the regular land revenue system of the Mughal empire was introduced. The assessment was made on separate holdings after measurement. The *pātel* or headman of the village received a drawback on the collections, besides various miscellaneous dues, and his office was hereditary; while for groups of villages superintendents designated *mandloī* were appointed, who managed the revenue accounts and received a proportion as remuneration, their offices being also hereditary. Relations of the *pātel* or *mandloī*, in lieu of succession to the office which passed by primogeniture, obtained holdings of land, and thus a class of hereditary cultivators grew up. In the less advanced tracts, the old Rājput or Bhīlāla chieftains occupied the position of the *mandloī*. Under the Muhammadans Nimār attained a high degree of prosperity; and although the period of Marāthā administration was characterized by reckless extortion and oppression, the framework of the revenue system was not seriously impaired. Owing to changes in the District area, the revenue demand of the earlier settlements cannot be compared with that now existing. The first settlements were effected by officers who were ignorant of local conditions, and made no allowance for the removal of the market for produce furnished by the troops which had previously garrisoned the District. In 1851, after several short-term assessments, an attempt was made to settle the revenue with the body of village cultivators and to confer on them proprietary rights, the hereditary *pātel* and headman of the village being reduced to the position of a mere rent collector. This system generally failed, as most of the village communities, having no experience of the system or clear understanding of the proposals made, refused to accept them, and the villages were settled either with the hereditary headmen, with the old superior revenue officials, or with strangers. In certain areas the settlement was not carried out at all owing to the Mutiny. After Nimār was transferred to the Central Provinces, it was determined, in view of the unsatisfactory nature of the previous settlement, to make a fresh investigation of tenures for the whole District. A new twenty years' settlement was accordingly completed in 1868–9 by Captain Forsyth, whose report

on Nimār may be specially mentioned for its excellence. The net revenue was fixed at 1·81 lakhs. The term of the old assessment was, however, allowed to expire, and the new settlement did not come into force until 1875. Proprietary rights were conferred on the headmen; but in view of the fact that in many cases the previous settlement had been made direct with the body of cultivators, many of these received the *mālik-makbūza* tenure, or right of ownership in their individual holdings, while an occupancy right was conferred on all other tenants. On the expiry of Captain Forsyth's settlement, the District was reassessed during the years 1895–8. The net revenue was raised to 2·89 lakhs, or by 52 per cent., the average revenue incidence per acre being R. 0–9–0 (maximum Rs. 1–1–8, minimum R. 0–4–9), and that of the rental R. 0–11–8 (maximum Rs. 1–9–4, minimum R. 0–6–0). The term of the new settlement is fourteen or fifteen years over most of the District. The receipts of land and total revenue for a series of years are shown below, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue . .	1,82	1,83	4,45	4,00
Total revenue . .	4,93	5,87	8,44	9,59

The increase in the land revenue receipts is largely due to the colonization of land by Government.

Local boards and municipalities. The management of local affairs outside municipal areas is entrusted to a District council and three local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903–4 was Rs. 59,000. The expenditure on education was Rs. 24,000 and on public works Rs. 17,000. KHANDWĀ and BURHĀNPUR are municipal towns.

Police and jails. The District Superintendent of police has a force of 447 officers and men, including a special reserve of 25, and 7 mounted constables, besides 1,383 village watchmen for 924 inhabited towns and villages. Khandwā contains a District jail, with accommodation for 122 prisoners, including 12 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 91.

Education. In respect of education Nimār is the leading District of the Province, nearly 6 per cent. of the population (11·2 males and 0·3 females) being able to read and write. The proportion of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 12 per cent. Statistics of the number of pupils are as follows: (1880–1) 3,971; (1890–1) 4,534; (1900–1) 4,828; (1903–4) 5,599, including 227 girls. The educational institu-

tions comprise a high school at Khandwā, 3 English and 4 vernacular middle schools, and 95 primary schools. There are also 2 primary girls' schools. The expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 42,000, of which Rs. 32,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 6,000 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries. The District has 7 dispensaries, with accommodation for 98 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 50,262, of whom 461 were in-patients, and 1,791 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 20,000.

Vaccination. Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns of Khandwā and Burhānpur. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903-4 was 44 per thousand of the District population, a very favourable result.

[J. Forsyth, *Settlement Report*, 1866; C. W. Montgomerie, *Settlement Report*, 1901. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Khandwā Tahsīl.—North-western *tahsīl* of Nimār District, Central Provinces, situated between 21° 31′ and 22° 20′ N. and 76° 4′ and 76° 59′ E., with an area of 2,046 square miles. The population in 1901 was 181,684, compared with 163,003 in 1891. The density is 89 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, KHANDWĀ (population, 19,401), the head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District, and 437 inhabited villages. Excluding 671 square miles of Government forest, 58 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 713 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,67,000, and for cesses Rs. 18,000. The *tahsīl* consists of an undulating plain, forming the valleys of the Abnā and Suktā rivers, and fringed by low hills towards the north and west.

Burhānpur Tahsīl.—Southern *tahsīl* of Nimār District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 5′ and 21° 37′ N. and 75° 57′ and 76° 48′ E., with an area of 1,138 square miles. The population in 1901 was 92,933, compared with 81,366 in 1891. The *tahsīl* has one town, BURHĀNPUR (population, 33,341), the head-quarters, and 194 villages. It also contains the ancient fort of ASĪRGARH. The average density is 82 persons per square mile, but the town of Burhānpur contains more than a third of the whole population of the *tahsīl*. Excluding 737 square miles of Government forest, 72 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 241 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,24,000, and for cesses Rs. 17,000. The *tahsīl* lies in the valley of the Tāpti, a narrow strip of very

fertile land, with hills on the north and south. The upper or eastern part of the valley, though containing excellent soil, is mainly covered by forest. This land is now in process of allotment on the *ryotwāri* system.

Harsūd.—North-eastern *tahsīl* of Nimār District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 38′ and 22° 25′ N. and 76° 25′ and 77° 13′ E., with an area of 1,089 square miles. The population of the area now forming the *tahsīl* was 54,998 in 1901, and 44,155 in 1891. The density is 51 persons per square mile, and there are 291 inhabited villages. The head-quarters, Harsūd, is a village of only 1,098 inhabitants, 33 miles from Khandwā on the railway line towards Itārsi. Excluding 543 square miles of Government forest, 68 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 276 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,23,000, and for cesses Rs. 12,000. The *tahsīl* was formed in 1896 by the transfer of the Chārwa tract from Hoshangābād District and of some villages from the Khandwā *tahsīl*, with the object of settling this large area of cultivable waste land on the *ryotwāri* system. About 160 *ryotwāri* villages have been established in the *tahsīl*, which was enlarged in 1904 by the transfer of another tract from Hoshangābād. The land generally is broken and uneven, and covered over considerable areas with forest.

Asīrgarh.—Hill fort in the Burhānpur *tahsīl* of Nimār District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 28′ N. and 76° 18′ E., 29 miles from Khandwā, and 7 miles from Chāndni station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The fort was held until recently by a small detachment of native infantry from Mhow, but this was removed in 1904. It is situated on an outlying spur of the Sātpurā range, 850 feet high from the base and 2,283 above sea-level, and formerly commanded the main road from Hindustān to the Deccan. The area of the fort crowning the hill is about 60 acres, and except in two places it is surrounded by a sheer scarp 80 to 120 feet in depth. The two points of access are defended by ramparts, through one of which a narrow ascent of stone steps passes through five gateways to the fort. An outer line of works, called the lower fort, embraces an inferior branch of the hill immediately above the village. A sally-port has been constructed through the underlying rock at the south-eastern corner. In the foundations of the fort are many vaulted chambers, probably old granaries. Firishta derived the name of Asīrgarh from Asā Ahīr, to whom he attributes the foundation

of the fort; but this is probably incorrect, as the name Asīr is repeatedly mentioned by the Rājput poet Chānd. It may come from the Asi or Haihaya kings who ruled the Narbadā valley from Maheswāra. In 1295 Asīrgarh was a stronghold of the Chauhān Rājputs, and was stormed by Alā-ud-dīn Khiljī on his return from raiding the Deccan, the whole garrison being put to the sword except one boy. It was subsequently held by the last of the Fārūki kings of Khāndesh, and taken by Akbar after a long siege in 1600. An inscription cut in the rock records this event. The main gateway was built in the reign of Jahāngīr, and the mosque (subsequently used as a barrack) in the reign of Shāh Jahān. A great bronze gun which was cast at Burhānpur in 1665 formerly stood on the western bastion, but has been recently removed to Government House, Nāgpur. In 1803 Asīrgarh was held by the Marāthās, and was taken by a detachment of General Wellesley's army shortly after the battle of Assaye, but was restored on the conclusion of peace. It was again besieged by a British force in 1819, and taken after a siege of twenty days, during which there was a considerable amount of fighting, and the British lost a hundred native soldiers by an accidental explosion in a battery.

Burhānpur Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Nimār District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 18′ N. and 76° 14′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 310 miles from Bombay, the station being at Lālbāgh, a suburb two miles distant from the town and not included in the municipality. The town is surrounded by a masonry wall with massive gates on the main roads, and the Tāpti river flows along the southern side. The space contained within the walls is two miles in length from north to south, and half a mile in breadth; but numerous remains outside show that the suburbs must once have been very extensive. The population in the last four years of census was: (1872) 29,303; (1881) 30,017; (1891) 32,252; (1901) 33,341. The total in 1901 included 21,762 Hindus and 11,253 Muhammadans. Among the Musalmāns are a number of Behnās or cotton-cleaners, and there is also a large community of Bohrās, a sect of Gujarātī merchants.

Burhānpur was founded about 1400 by Nāsir Khān, the first independent prince of the Fārūki dynasty of Khāndesh, and called by him after the famous Shaikh Burhān-ud-dīn of Daulatābād. Zainābād on the opposite side of the Tāpti was founded at the same time, and called after another Shaikh Zain-ud-dīn. Burhānpur was the usual residence of all the

later Fārūki kings, and it was during their rule of two centuries that the two great mosques called the Jāma Masjid and the Bībī Masjid were built. In 1600 Burhānpur, with the kingdom of the Fārūkis, was annexed by the emperor Akbar. Under Akbar and his successor, Burhānpur was greatly embellished. In the *Ain-i-Akbarī* it is described as a 'large city with many gardens, in some of which is found sandal-wood, inhabited by people of all nations and abounding with handicraftsmen. In the summer the town is covered with dust, and during the rains the streets are full of mud and stone.' Burhānpur formed the seat of government of the Deccan princes of the empire till 1635, when Aurangābād took its place. After this event, Burhānpur became the capital of the large *Sūbah* of Khāndesh, usually governed by a prince of the royal blood. The transfer had not occurred at the time when Sir Thomas Roe, Ambassador in 1614 from James I to the Great Mughal, paid his visit to prince Parvez, son of Jahāngīr. Forty-four years after Sir Thomas Roe's visit Tavernier described Burhānpur (or as he wrote it, Brampour), through which he then passed for the second time, as 'a great city very much ruined, the houses being for the most part thatched with straw.' He adds: 'There is also a great castle in the midst of the city, where the governor lives. The government of this province is a very considerable command, only conferred upon the son or uncle of the king. There is a great trade in this city; and as well in Brampour as over all the Provinces, there is made a prodigious quantity of calicuts, very clear and white, which are transported into Persia, Turkey, and Muscovia, Poland, Arabia, to Grand Cairo, and other places.' The remains of mosques and other buildings show that, at the height of its prosperity under the Mughals, Burhānpur extended over an area of about five square miles. The city continued to play an important part in the wars of the empire, particularly in the reign of Aurangzeb. It was plundered in 1685 by the Marāthās just after the emperor had left it with an enormous army to subjugate the Deccan. Repeated battles were afterwards fought in its neighbourhood, until in 1719 the demands of the Marāthās for the *chauth* or one-fourth of the revenue was formally conceded. Between 1720 and 1748 Burhānpur was the headquarters of the Nizām Asaf Jāh, who then possessed the government of the Deccan. It afterwards belonged to the Peshwā and Sindhia, and was taken by General Wellesley's army in 1803, but did not finally become British territory until 1860. In 1849 the town was the scene of a desperate and sanguinary

affray between the Muhammadans and Hindus. In 1897 a large part of the town was destroyed by fire, and in 1903 there was a severe outbreak of plague with 1,872 deaths. The Bībī Masjid is now in a bad state of repair; but the Jāma Masjid, which was built by Alī Khān in 1588 and visited by Akbar twelve years later, is a fine building, decorated with stone carvings executed in perfect taste. Along the river bank the ruins of the fort rise to a great height, and the remains of lofty halls bear testimony to the magnificence of its palace. The tombs in the suburbs include those of Mubārak Shāh and Adil Shāh, which are under repair.

Burhānpur was created a municipality in 1869. The municipal receipts and expenditure during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 65,000. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 62,000, including octroi (Rs. 44,000) and conservancy (Rs. 7,000); and the principal items of expenditure were sanitation (Rs. 13,000), education (Rs. 6,000), general administration and collection of taxes (Rs. 6,000), and refunds of duty on goods in transit (Rs. 5,000), out of a total of Rs. 54,000. A system of water-works was completed by the Mughal emperor Jahāngīr in the seventeenth century. Several lines of subterranean wells were constructed to catch the water percolating from the hills to the centre of the valley, and connected by conduits leading into masonry reservoirs. Eight lines of wells can be traced, but all except two are quite out of repair. From the reservoirs water was distributed to the town by a system of earthenware or stone pipes, furnished at short intervals with tall hollow columns of masonry, which served the purpose of stand-pipes from which the water could be drawn off. The present scheme, which was completed in 1894, involved the construction of masonry channels for the conduits, and the substitution of cast-iron pipes with sluice-valves and stand-posts for the old earthenware and stone channels. The work cost 1·43 lakhs and the annual maintenance charges are Rs. 3,200. No water rate is yet levied except on private connexions.

Burhānpur has a considerable export trade in raw cotton, and the town contains three ginning factories. Two more ginning factories and two presses have been established at Lālbāgh. The principal hand industry of the town is the production of silk cloths embroidered with gold and silver lace, which continues now in the same manner as described by Tavernier. The manufacture of the gold wire is distinct from the weaving industry, and is carried on by a special set of

craftsmen. About 2,000 persons were supported in 1901 by the wire-drawing industry, and the same number by silk-weaving. Another small industry is the manufacture of rough globes of coloured and frosted glass for decorative purposes. The construction of the railway has deprived Burhānpur of the favourable position it formerly enjoyed as the main trade centre between Hindustān and the Deccan, while changes in fashion have decreased the demand for its costly embroidered fabrics. The population, however, continues to increase at a slow rate. Burhānpur contains an English middle and girls' school, several branch schools, and a dispensary.

Khandwā Town.—Head-quarters of Nimār District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 50′ N. and 76° 22′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 353 miles from Bombay, and forming the junction for the metre-gauge Rājputāna-Mālwā branch line to Mhow. The town stands at an elevation of 1,007 feet, on a sheet of basalt rock covered with shallow surface soil; and owing to the proximity of the rock to the surface there is a noticeable absence of trees. The population at the last four enumerations was: (1872) 14,119; (1881) 15,142; (1891) 15,589; (1901) 19,401.

Khandwā is a place of considerable antiquity. Owing to its situation at the junction of the two great roads leading from Northern and Western India to the Deccan, it must have been occupied at an early period, and Cunningham identifies it with the Kognabanda of Ptolemy. It is mentioned by the Arabian geographer Albirūnī, who wrote early in the eleventh century. In the twelfth century it was a great seat of Jain worship; and many finely carved pillars, cornices, and other stonework belonging to old Jain temples may be seen in the more modern buildings. The town is surrounded by four great tanks with stone embankments. A new Jain temple constructed at a cost of Rs. 75,000 is now approaching completion. Khandwā is mentioned by the historian Firishta as the seat of a local governor of the kingdom of Mālwā in 1516. It was burnt by Jaswant Rao Holkar in 1802, and again partially by Tāntiā Topī in 1858.

Khandwā was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts and expenditure during the decade ending 1901 averaged a lakh. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 1,07,000, the main heads of receipt being octroi (Rs. 65,000), markets and slaughter-houses (Rs. 5,000), and conservancy (Rs. 3,000); while the expenditure, which amounted to Rs. 1,04,000, included refunds of duty on goods

in transit (Rs. 34,000), conservancy (Rs. 8,000), education (Rs. 10,000), and general administration and collection of taxes (Rs. 8,000). The town is supplied with water from the adjoining Mohghāt reservoir. The catchment area of the tank has been increased by the construction of a canal 3¾ miles in length to Ajanti, and is now about 9 square miles, the daily supply being calculated at 450,000 gallons. The works were opened in 1897 at a cost of 4 lakhs. The maintenance charges amount to about Rs. 5,000, to meet which a water rate has recently been imposed. Cotton is an important crop in Nimār District, and Khandwā is a centre for the export of the raw product. It now contains 9 ginning and 5 pressing factories, which have a total capital of about 6½ lakhs and employ 1,000 operatives. Seven out of the fourteen factories have been opened within the last eight years. An oil-pressing and timber-sawing factory has also been erected. The dépôt for the supply of *gānja* (*Cannabis sativa*) to the Central Provinces is situated at Khandwā, the crop being grown under licence in Nimār District. A rest camp for troops is maintained during the trooping season. There is a printing press which issues a weekly paper in Marāthī. The educational institutions comprise a high school, containing 46 pupils, two English middle schools, and four branch schools. The Roman Catholic and Methodist Episcopal Churches carry on mission and educational work in Khandwā, and maintain schools and an orphanage. The town has three dispensaries, one of which is a police hospital and another is maintained by the railway. A veterinary dispensary has recently been opened.

Māndhāta.—Village in the Khandwā *tahsīl* of Nimār District, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 15′ N. and 76° 9′ E., 32 miles from Khandwā and 7 miles east of Mortakkā station on the Rājputāna-Mālwā Railway. Population (1901), 832. It stands on the Narbadā river and is a well-known Hindu place of pilgrimage, as it contains one of the twelve celebrated *lingams* of Siva. The village of Māndhāta is built partly upon the south bank of the Narbadā and partly upon an island in the river, and is exceedingly picturesque with rows of houses, temples, and shops, and the Rao's palace conspicuous above the rest, standing on terraces scarped out of the sides of a hill on the island. Between the island and the southern bank the Narbadā forms a deep pool, which is full of large tame fish. Upon the summit of the hill are signs of a once flourishing settlement, in the shape of ruined fortifications and

temples. The most interesting is the temple of Siddhanāth. It stands on a raised platform, whose plinth is supported by elephants in various positions. The temple of Onkār on the island is a comparatively modern structure, but the great columns supporting it have been taken from some older building. On the north bank of the river are some Vaishnava and Jain temples. The Rao of Māndhāta, the hereditary custodian of all the modern temples, is a Bhilāla claiming descent from a Chauhān Rājput who is said to have taken Māndhāta from a Bhīl chief in 1165. A large annual fair is held in October, at which in former years devotees of Bhairon threw themselves down from the cliffs and were dashed to pieces on the rocks in the river. The last sacrifice of this kind was witnessed by a British officer in 1824. It is the practice at the fair to present horses as offerings at the shrine of Siva; and as the frugal worshippers are inclined to consider that any horse will pass muster for an offering as long as it is alive, it has come to be a proverb, when describing an absolutely worthless horse, to say that it is good enough to be offered at the shrine of Māndhāta.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Betūl District.—District in the Nerbudda Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 22′ and 22° 23′ N. and 77° 11′ and 78° 34′ E., with an area of 3,826 square miles. It is bounded on the north and west by Hoshangābād; on the east by Chhindwāra; and on the south by the Amraotī District of Berār. Betūl occupies nearly the entire width of the range between the valley of the Narbadā on the north and the Berār plains on the south; and with the exception of 15 or 20 villages which lie below the *ghāts* (passes) on the southern border, the whole District is situated on the plateau. The mean elevation is about 2,000 feet, but a number of peaks and ranges rise above 3,000 feet; and in the south-west corner the Khāmla plateau reaches a height of 3,789 feet. The District may be described generally as a central plateau surrounded by a belt of hilly and forest-covered country, wide on the north and west, but narrower on the east and south. The northern portion, down to the valleys of the Bel and Māchna rivers, and the town of Badnūr, is principally occupied by the main chain of the Sātpurās and its outlying spurs. About half of this tract consists of forest-clad ranges, between which lies an undulating country, intersected by innumerable watercourses and covered principally with a thin sandy soil of little value for cultivation. In the north-east the Tawā river flows along the border of the District, and is joined east of Shāhpur by the Māchna, which

rises close to Badnūr. The Morand rises near Chicholī, and flows to the north-west to join the Ganjāl river in Hoshangābād. South of the sandy tract lies the rich valley of Betūl, watered by the Māchna and Sāmpna rivers, almost entirely under cultivation and well wooded, while farther to the east the smaller valleys of the Ambhorā and Tāpti present a similar appearance. To the south-east lies an extensive rolling area of basaltic formation, having the sacred town of Multai and the springs of the river Tāpti at its highest point, and consisting of alternate ridges of bare stony hills and narrow fertile valleys. Along the southern, eastern, and western borders is a strip of hilly country, generally narrow, but increasing towards the west to a breadth of about 15 miles from south to north. The southern hills form the *ghāts* of the Sātpurās leading down to the Berār plains. In the west of the District the northern and southern ranges meet in the wild tract of hill and forest forming the *parganas* of Saulīgarh in Betūl and Kālībhīt in Nimār. The Tāpti, rising at Multai, flows due west through the southern part of the District in a deep and rocky bed, flanked on either side by hills of considerable height, which are in places so steep that they may more properly be described as cliffs. The Wardhā and Bel rivers also rise on the Multai plateau.

Geology. The northern portion of the District is occupied by metamorphic and Gondwāna rocks, the latter consisting chiefly of sandstones, and shales, while the west and south are covered by the Deccan trap. In the hills south of Betūl occur sedimentary inter-trappean deposits abounding in fossils.

Botany. The extensive forests contain much teak, associated with which are all the common species of this part of the Central Provinces. *Tinsā* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*) is a common and valuable timber tree. *Mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*) abounds both in the forests and in the open country. Among grasses may be mentioned *rūsa* or *tikāri* (*Andropogon Schoenanthus*), from which a valuable oil is obtained.

Fauna. The forests contain tigers, leopards, and the common species of deer—*sāmbar*, spotted deer, ravine deer, and barking-deer. Antelope wander over the open country. There are bison in the Saulīgarh and Asīr ranges, but their numbers are decreasing. Water-birds are scarcely found, owing to the absence of tanks.

Climate and temperature. The climate is cool and healthy. During the cold season the thermometer frequently falls to several degrees below freezing-point; the hot wind is hardly felt before the end of April, and it ceases after sunset. The nights in the hot season are

invariably cool and pleasant. Malarial fever is prevalent during the autumn months, especially in the forest tracts.

The annual rainfall averages 46 inches. At Multai it is a few inches less than at Badnūr, the position of the latter town in a small basin surrounded by low hills probably giving it a somewhat increased rainfall, while the absence of forest on the Multai plateau exercises a contrary influence. The statistics of past years show that the rainfall is on the whole more likely to be excessive than deficient. Rainfall.

About four miles from Badnūr, and dominating the fertile valleys of the Māchna and Sāmpna, stands the fort of Kherlā, the head-quarters of one of the Gond dynasties which formerly held possession of the province. A religious work called the *Vivek Sindhu*, written by one Mukund Rao Swāmi, who lived about A. D. 1300, contains some incidental references to the Kherlā rulers. The tomb of Mukund Rao is still to be seen within the precincts of the fort; but the ruins of the stronghold itself appear to be of Muhammadan origin, and probably date from a later period. According to tradition, the Gonds were preceded by Rājput rulers, the last of whom was killed at Kherlā after a twelve years' siege by the army of the king of Delhi. The Muhammadan general was also killed in the last assault, and his tomb at Umrī immediately below the fort is still an object of pilgrimage. Firishta relates that at the end of the fourteenth century the rulers of Kherlā were Gonds, possessed of considerable wealth and power, and so strong in arms as to venture to try conclusions with the Muhammadan rulers of Berār and Mālwā. In 1433 Hoshang Shāh, king of Mālwā, conquered Kherlā, which remained part of Mālwā till this was incorporated in the dominions of the emperor of Delhi towards the end of the sixteenth century. After Kherlā fell under the sway of the Mughals, it was governed by the Gond Rājās of Deogarh in Chhindwāra District, who had been converted to Islām and were subject to Delhi. In the middle of the eighteenth century it passed, with the rest of the kingdom of Deogarh, to the Bhonslas of Nāgpur. In 1818 the District formed part of the territory provisionally ceded to the British, and in 1826 it was formally included in the British dominions by treaty. From the conclusion of the Marāthā Wars to the present day there has been little to disturb the peace of Betūl. During the Mutiny the tranquillity of the District was scarcely broken, though on his flight through Central India Tāntiā Topī passed through Multai and plundered the treasury. A military force was quartered at Betūl until 1862. History.

Archaeology.

Bhainsdehī has an old temple with fine stone carving, part of which is in good repair. At Muktāgiri, near the southern boundary of the District on the Ellichpur road, a collection of modern Jain temples form a picturesque group at the head of a ravine and waterfall. An annual Jain fair is held here.

The people.

The population at the last three enumerations was: (1881) 304,905; (1891) 323,196; (1901) 285,363. Between 1881 and 1891 the increase was 6 per cent., or only half that of the Province as a whole, and was mainly confined to the Multai *tahsīl*. In the last intercensal period the decrease was 12 per cent., principally caused by famine, but also partly by emigration to Berār. The loss was most marked in the forest tracts of the District, the open country not suffering seriously. The District has two towns, BADNŪR, the head-quarters, and BETŪL, and 1,194 inhabited villages. The chief statistics of population in 1901 are shown below:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Betūl . .	2,770	2	777	170,994	62	−12.2	3,489
Multai . .	1,056	...	417	114,369	108	−11.0	2,035
District total	3,826	2	1,194	285,363	75	−11.7	5,524

About 69 per cent. of the population are Hindus, 29 per cent. Animists, and 1½ per cent. Muhammadans. The population includes a large proportion of Gonds and Korkūs, and also immigrants from Mālwā through Hoshangābād on the north and from Berār on the south. The diversity of the different constituents is clearly shown by the statistics of language, for 33 per cent. of the population speak the Mālwī dialect of Rājasthāni, 23 per cent. Marāthī, 29 per cent. Gondī, and 8 per cent. Korkū. The northern elements of the population probably entered the District with Hoshang Shāh, king of Mālwā, in the fifteenth century, while the Marāthās came with the rise of the Bhonslas in the eighteenth. They are found principally in the Multai *tahsīl*, which borders on Berār.

Their castes and occupations.

Brāhmans (4,000) belong principally to Mālwā and are called Mālwī Brāhmans, but they now follow Marāthā fashions. They are cultivators, village priests, and *patwāris* or village accountants. The principal cultivating castes are the Kunbīs (31,000), Kurmīs (14,000), and Bhoyars (18,000). The two

latter castes are better cultivators than the Kunbīs, and irrigation wells for sugar-cane are usually constructed by Bhoyars. Kurmīs hold the rich villages round Betūl. Ahīrs or Gaolīs number 15,000. Many of them live in the open country and are cultivators, but there is a sub-caste of Raniyā Gaolīs (from *ran*, 'jungle'), who live in the forests of the north of the District and on the Khāmla plateau, and breed cattle. Gonds (83,000) form nearly 29 per cent. of the population, and Korkūs (24,000) 8½ per cent. The latter suffered very severely in the famines. The Korkūs are nearly all nominal Hindus and worship Mahādeo. Gonds, Korkūs, and Mehrās (28,000) are generally farm-servants and labourers. Their hardest time is from the middle of April till the middle of August, when they get very little work, and their principal resource is the *mahuā* flower. Many labourers from the south of the District emigrate to Berār to reap the *jowār* and cotton crops, returning for the wheat harvest in the spring. From the north of the District labourers similarly go to the Narbadā valley to cut the wheat. About 70 per cent. of the population were returned as dependent on agriculture in 1901.

Christian missions. Christians number 417, of whom 111 belong to the Anglican communion and 288 are Lutherans, 384 of the total number being natives. There are stations of the Evangelical Lutheran Mission of Sweden at Badnūr, Chicholī, Nīmpāni, and Bordehī; and the London Korkū Mission has recently established one at Bhainsdehī.

General agricultural conditions. Black soil of first-rate quality is rarely found; and the best soil that occurs in any quantity is a friable loam, black or brown in colour, and varying from 2 to 10 feet in depth. In the trap country it often contains black stones and more rarely flints, and in the northern villages is mixed with sand. An inferior class consists of either very shallow black soil, or red soil which has been made more fertile by lying in a depression, while the poorest variety in the trap country is a red gravel generally strewn with brown stones. This last extends over as much as 39 per cent. of the total area. The result of famine has been to throw a considerable quantity of land out of cultivation, but all the best land is occupied.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops. About 32 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue, and 135 square miles of Government forest are in process of settlement on the *ryotwāri* system. The remaining area is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The following

table gives the principal statistics of cultivation in 1903-4, with areas in square miles :—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Betūl . .	2,770	786	7	795	825
Multai . .	1,056	557	10	228	364
Total	3,826	1,343	17	1,023	1,189

The small millets *kodon* and *kutkī* cover 199 square miles, wheat 233 square miles, *jowār* 134 square miles, the oilseeds *til* and *jagnī* (*Guizotia oleifera*) 139 square miles, and gram 61 square miles. As in other Districts, wheat has in recent years been replaced by less valuable crops. Gram is severely affected by the cold frosty mists which are of frequent occurrence about the time when the plant is in flower, and hence it is much less grown as a mixture with wheat than in the Narbadā valley. *Kodon* and *kutkī* are the staple food of the Gonds. The area under sugar-cane has decreased from 9,000 acres in 1864 and 7,000 in 1894 to 3,000 in 1903-4. Cotton was grown on 29 square miles in 1903-4. Most of the labouring classes have small gardens, in which they sow beans, maize, tobacco, or chillies.

Improvements in agricultural practice. Fields are scarcely ever embanked, probably owing to the fact that so many of them are in a sloping position. The most frequent improvements are directed to prevent erosion by surface drainage and the currents of streams. In a few cases this is effected by embanking and straightening the course of the stream ; but more frequently the surface drainage of the slopes on each side is divided by the construction of protective trenches bordering the fields, and embanked on the inner edge towards the field. Terraces are sometimes made by placing lines of large stones across sloping fields at intervals, with the result that in a few years, owing to the action of drainage, each line of stones becomes the edge of a terrace. During the ten years ending 1904, about Rs. 26,000 was advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act and 2·1 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep. Cattle are bred in the jungles in the north of the District and also on the Khāmla plateau in the south, as well as to a certain extent in the open country. Those of the local breed are small, but hardy, and have strong feet. They are generally red and white, or red and black in colour. As a rule no care is exercised in breeding, and immature bulls are left in the

herds before castration. On the Khāmla plateau, however, the Gaolīs sometimes select bulls for breeding, and obtain calves of fair size, but these cattle are principally sold in Berār. Large bullocks are imported from Bhopāl and Hoshangābād, and some from Deogarh in Chhindwāra. The Hoshangābād cattle are principally used in carts and to some extent for cultivation in soft soil, but their feet are too tender for the stony soils. Buffaloes are bred in the District. The bulls are used for drawing water and carting, but not for cultivation, and are sold in the rice tracts of Seonī and Bālāghāt. The cows are kept for the production of *ghī* and are much more valuable than the bulls. Small ponies are bred to a slight extent, and are used for pack-carriage and in some cases for riding by landowners.

Irrigation. Only about 4,000 acres of spring crop land are usually irrigated, and then only because a well is available which was primarily made for sugar-cane or opium. Wells can be constructed very cheaply in some parts of the Multai plateau, where the subsoil water is near the surface, and the gravel or rock underlying the first few feet of soil is so hard that a durable shaft can be driven through it without being supported by brick or stone work. Even when water is available, wheat is usually not irrigated, owing to the apprehension that it may suffer from rust or frost. There are about 5,000 wells in the District.

Forests. The Government forests occupy an area of 1,189 square miles, of which 1,181 are 'reserved' forest. In addition to this, 135 square miles have been set apart for disforestation and settlement on the *ryotwāri* system. The forests are situated generally on the northern, western, and southern borders. Teak and bamboos are found on the trap hills, but not on the sandstone formation. *Tinsā* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*) is a common and valuable timber tree. *Sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) is found on flat ground where the soil is good, and satin-wood is abundant on the sandy soils. The forests supply a quantity of timber to Berār, in addition to the local consumption. The revenue obtained in 1903-4 was Rs. 71,000, of which Rs. 17,000 was realized from sales of timber, Rs. 16,000 from bamboos, and Rs. 20,000 from grazing dues and grass.

Minerals. No mines are worked on a large scale in Betūl. Seams of coal have been found in different localities, the largest being at Mardānpur on the Māchna river, which is three feet thick in parts, and at Rāwandeo on the Tawā river, where there are several outcrops and one or two seams have a thickness of four

feet. Smaller seams occur about two miles east of Shāhpur on the Māchna, and in the Sukī nullah. Limestone quarries are worked in several places. The lime is burnt on the spot in hand furnaces and sold for local consumption. There is a stone quarry at Sālbardī, from which stone suitable for mortars and cups is obtained. Copper ores have been found in the vicinity of the Tāpti, and mica in the Rānīpur forests and near Sonāghāti.

Arts and manufactures.

The local industries are of little importance. Several villages have colonies of Mahārs or low-caste weavers, who produce coarse cotton cloth; the thread is now all imported from the Nāgpur mills. Brass-working is carried on at Amlā, Rāmli, and Jāwalkhedā to a small extent, but brass vessels are principally imported from Hoshangābād and Chhindwāra. Gold and silver ornaments are made at Chicholī, Betūl, Atner, and Satner, and the pottery of Betūl has some reputation. Banjārās make sacking of *san*-hemp (*Crotalaria juncea*).

Commerce.

Wheat and oilseeds are the principal grains exported, and also gram, *tiurā* (*Lathyrus sativus*), and *urad* (*Phaseolus radiatus*) in small quantities. *Jowār* has hitherto been imported from Berār for local consumption. Cotton is now cultivated for export. *Gur* or unrefined sugar is exported principally to Berār, and to a small extent to the Narbadā valley, where, however, it cannot compete in price with that of Northern India. The principal exports of forest produce are timber, *mahuā*, myrabolams, *chironjī*, the fruit of the *achār*-tree (*Buchanania latifolia*), and *gullī*, or the oil of *mahuā* seeds. Others of less importance are *tikāri* oil (*Andropogon Schoenanthus*), gum, and lac. Teak and *tinsā* are the only timbers exported to any considerable extent. The imports consist principally of thread and cotton piece-goods, kerosene oil, hardware, gold and silver, salt, groceries and spices. Betel-leaves are imported from Berār and Rāmtek, and turmeric from Berār. The wholesale trade is in the hands of Mārwāri Baniās, while the retail purchase and collection of grain is largely made by Telis and Kalārs, who carry it on bullocks; timber and forest produce are taken in small quantities to Berār and Hoshangābād by Gonds. There are numerous weekly markets, but only retail transactions take place at these. An annual religious fair is held at Melājpur near Chicholī, at which a considerable amount of business is done in the sale of household and other utensils.

Railways and roads.

Betūl has hitherto been untouched by the railway, but a project for a line from Itārsi through the District to connect

with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway in Berār is under consideration. Most of the trade has hitherto joined the railway at Itārsi on the north, the metalled road from Badnūr to Itārsi being the principal route. The roads from Chicholī to Nīmpāni and from Rānīpur to Shāhpur are feeders to the main road. On the south, the railway through Berār runs within 45 miles of the open parts of the Multai plateau, but the Multai-Pattan and Badnūr-Ellichpur roads have only recently been made passable for carts down the slopes of the Sātpurās. Two other routes leading from Atner and Masod to Berār are used by pack-animals. Most of the traffic with the south passes through Chāndūr in Berār, which is an important market town, to Amraotī. There are altogether 81 miles of metalled and 203 miles of unmetalled roads in the District, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 38,000. The Public Works department keeps up 239 miles of road and the District council 44. There are avenues of trees on 32 miles.

Famine. Except in the last decade, it does not appear that Betūl has suffered greatly from famine. There were bad harvests in the years 1823–5 and again in 1828–30. In 1832–3 excessive, followed by deficient, rain caused a failure of crops and heavy mortality occurred. In 1868 the premature cessation of the rains produced a short crop and a certain amount of distress, but it was not severe, and (as in later years) the flowers of the *mahuā*-tree afforded a means of sustenance to the poorer classes. After this there was no distress until 1896, when following three successive poor harvests only a third of a normal crop was obtained. Severe famine prevailed in 1897, the numbers relieved in October reaching 26,000, or 8 per cent. of the population, and the total expenditure being 4·5 lakhs. The extent of the distress was not fully appreciated at first, owing to the reluctance of the forest tribes to apply for relief. In 1898–9 a little relief was again given in the hot season. In 1899–1900 the crops failed altogether from want of rain, the out-turn being only 20 per cent. of normal. Relief was extremely liberal and efficient, the numbers rising to 143,000 persons, or 45 per cent. of the population, in August, 1900, and the total expenditure being 34 lakhs.

District subdivisions and staff. The Deputy-Commissioner is aided by one Extra-Assistant Commissioner. For administrative purposes the District is divided into two *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The Forest officer usually belongs to the Provincial service, and public works are under the Executive

Engineer of the Hoshangābād division, whose head-quarters are at Hoshangābād town.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a Subordinate Judge who also has the powers of a District Judge, and a Munsif for the Betūl *tahsīl*. Of the civil litigation, suits on mortgage-deeds with conditional sale and for partition of immovable property are the most common classes of important cases. The crime of the District is petty, and presents no special features.

Land revenue administration.

Under the Marāthā revenue system villages were farmed out to the highest bidder, and any rights or consideration which the village headmen may have enjoyed in the past were almost entirely effaced. Custom enjoined that so long as the annual rent demanded was paid, the tenure of the older cultivators should be hereditary and continuous. During the more favourable period of Marāthā rule the revenue of the District was 1·66 lakhs. When the peace of Deogaon and the disruption of the Nāgpur territories induced a policy of rack-renting, it was raised to 2·47 lakhs; and on the British occupation of the District the earliest short-term settlements imposed a still further enhancement, the demand rising at one time to 2·87 lakhs. This was never collected and had to be continually reduced, owing to the impoverishment of the District from over-assessment, until in 1834 a twenty years' settlement was made with a demand which had fallen to 1·40 lakhs. Under this settlement the District prospered greatly. On its expiry revision was delayed by the Mutiny, and was finally completed in 1864, the settlement being made for thirty years, and the demand raised to 1·84 lakhs. At this settlement the village headmen, who had previously been in the position of contractors or farmers, receiving a drawback on the collections of revenue, obtained proprietary and transferable rights in their villages. The District continued to thrive during the period of the settlement, the extension of cultivation amounting to 38 per cent., while prices rose by 70 to 100 per cent. A new settlement was begun in 1894 on completion of the cadastral survey, but owing to the suspension of work during the famine of 1897 was not completed until 1899. The result was an enhancement of the revenue to 2·77 lakhs, or by 45 per cent. on the demand immediately before revision. The new revenue absorbed 54 per cent. of the 'assets.' The average incidence of revenue per acre was R. 0–5–2 (maximum R. 0–13–8, minimum R. 0–2–1), and the rental incidence R. 0–7–1 (maximum Rs. 1–5–2, minimum R. 0–2–9).

Owing to the deterioration caused by famine, some temporary remissions of revenue have been made since. The collections of land and total revenue for a series of years are shown below, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue	1,99	2,00	1,95	2,64
Total revenue	4,05	5,11	4,41	5,78

The management of local affairs, outside municipal areas, is entrusted to a District council and two local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903-4 was Rs. 42,000, while the expenditure on education was Rs. 18,000 and on public works Rs. 11,000. BADNŪR and BETŪL are municipal towns. **Local boards and municipalities.**

The police force consists of 321 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, under a District Superintendent. There are 1,262 village watchmen for 1,196 inhabited villages. Badnūr has a District jail, with accommodation for 143 prisoners, including 9 female prisoners. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 51. **Police and jails.**

In respect of education the District ranks fourteenth in the Province, only 3·9 per cent. of the male population and but 118 females being able to read and write in 1901. The proportion of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 6 per cent. Statistics of the number of pupils are as follows: (1880-1) 1,513; (1890-1) 2,578; (1900-1) 2,452; (1903-4) 3,545, including 32 girls. The educational institutions comprise an English middle school, three vernacular middle schools, and 60 primary schools. The only girls' school in the District is at Betūl, and does not flourish. The expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 24,000, of which Rs. 21,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds, and Rs. 2,000 from fees. **Education.**

The District has 3 dispensaries, with accommodation for 41 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 15.992, of whom 398 were in-patients, and 388 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 5,400, the greater part of which was provided from Provincial and Local funds. **Hospitals and dispensaries.**

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns of Badnūr and Betūl. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903-4 was 59 per 1,000 of the District population, a very favourable result. **Vaccination.**

[B. P. Standen, *Settlement Report*, 1901. A District Gazetteer is under preparation.]

Betūl Tahsīl.—Western *tahsīl* of Betūl District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 22′ and 22° 22′ N. and 77° 11′ and 78° 3′ E., with an area of 2,770 square miles. The population in 1901 was 170,994, compared with 194,719 in 1891. The *tahsīl* has two towns, BADNŪR (population, 5,766), the *tahsīl* and District head-quarters, and BETŪL (4,739); and 777 inhabited villages. The density is 62 persons per square mile. Excluding 825 square miles of Government forest, 56 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 786 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,49,000, and for cesses Rs. 16,000. The *tahsīl* covers nearly the whole breadth of the Sātpurā plateau, and consists of a fairly open and fertile plain in the centre, with ranges of hills encircling it on three sides.

Multai.—Eastern *tahsīl* of Betūl District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 25′ and 22° 23′ N. and 77° 57′ and 78° 34′ E., with an area of 1,056 square miles. The population in 1901 was 114,369, compared with 128,477 in 1891. The density is 108 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 417 inhabited villages. Its head-quarters are at Multai, a village of 3,505 inhabitants, 28 miles from Badnūr on the Nāgpur road and 87 miles from Nāgpur. The village stands on an elevated plateau 2,600 feet high, and contains a sacred tank which is considered to be the source of the river Tāpti. The real source of the river is, however, two miles distant. Excluding 364 square miles of Government forest, 75 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 557 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,16,000, and for cesses Rs. 13,000. The *tahsīl* consists mainly of poor rolling upland, with rich patches of fertile soil in the valleys, and is bordered by rugged hills to the north and south.

Badnūr.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District of Betūl, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 55′ N. and 77° 54′ E., on the Māchna river, 55 miles from Itārsi station, and 115 miles from Nāgpur by road. A daily mail-cart service connects it with Itārsi. Betūl, the old capital, from which the District takes its name, lies on the Nāgpur road, three miles from Badnūr, the latter town having informally become the District head-quarters in 1822, when the Deputy Commissioner removed his residence to it from Betūl. The population in 1901 was

5,766, and Badnūr is a growing town. At a distance of four miles is Kherlā, the former capital of one of the Gond dynasties, where there is an old fort now in ruins. Badnūr was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 9,300. In 1903–4 they were Rs. 9,000, derived principally from a house tax and a grant from Provincial funds. The town is the principal trading centre for Betūl District. A station of the Swedish Mission has been established here; and Badnūr contains an English middle school with a hostel and garden, which were constructed partly from funds raised for a memorial to Queen Victoria. A dispensary is also maintained.

Betūl Town.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 52′ N. and 77° 56′ E., three miles from Badnūr, on the road to Multai and Nāgpur. Population (1901), 4,739. Betūl is declining in importance, being overshadowed by the neighbouring and newer town of Badnūr, the District head-quarters. It was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 4,500. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 3,300, principally derived from a house tax. Pottery, gold and silver work, and the manufacture of lac bangles are the local handicrafts, and a weekly cattle market is held. Betūl contains a vernacular middle school and a girls' school.

Chhindwāra District.—District in the Nerbudda Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 28′ and 22° 49′ N. and 78° 10′ and 79° 24′ E., on the Sātpurā plateau, with an area of 4,631 square miles. It is bounded on the north by Hoshangābād and Narsinghpur; on the west by Betūl; on the east by Seonī; and on the south by Nāgpur, and along a small strip to the south-east by the Amraotī District of Berār. The District may be described as consisting of three steps or sections of different elevation ascending from the south. Most of the Sausar *tahsīl* lies below the Sātpurās and forms part of the Nāgpur plain, with an elevation of about 1,100 feet. North of this is a section of the regular Sātpurā plateau forming the *mālguzāri*[1] area of the Chhindwāra *tahsīl*, and lying at a general elevation of about 2,000 feet; while north again is a stretch of wild and mountainous country often rising to 3,000 feet above the sea, covered with forest, and divided into *jāgīrs* or hereditary estates of the old hill chieftains. The marked features of the hill system are the range which forms the southern edge of the

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

[1] Land held on ordinary proprietary tenure, as distinct from the large impartible estates devolving by primogeniture, called in this District *jāgīrs*.

Sātpurā plateau ascending sharply from the Nāgpur plain, and that which rises from the level of the plateau to the north and falls again to the Narbadā valley. A few peaks in the northern range rise to over 3,700 feet, and along its west extends a series of small plateaux separated by valleys and ravines. In the north-west the hills fall away in a strip of low-lying country, which in turn is flanked by the Mahādeo range of Hoshangābād. A small range of foot-hills also divides the south of the District from Nāgpur. The surface of the Sausar *tahsīl* is generally undulating, while that of the Chhindwāra *tahsīl* is broken by isolated flat-topped hillocks. The most level portions are the Chaurai tract bordering on Seonī, and the Saolī-Mohkher plain to the south-west of Chhindwāra town. Several tributaries of the Narbadā rise in the northern hills, but the drainage generally is to the south. The Kanhān river rises in the north-west of the District, and after traversing the Chhindwāra *tahsīl* for about 30 miles turns to the east to descend the *ghāts* (hill-sides or passes) and subsequently crosses the Sausar *tahsīl* into Nāgpur. The Pench also rises in the north-west, and after flowing east through the Chhindwāra *tahsīl* turns to the south and forms the boundary between Chhindwāra and Seonī, its course in the District being about 160 miles. The Pench subsequently falls into the Kanhān, which is itself a tributary of the Waingangā. The Kulbeherā in Chhindwāra and the Jām in Sausar are affluents of the Pench and Kanhān respectively.

Geology. The greater part of the District is covered with the Deccan trap or volcanic rock, in which fossiliferous inter-trappean strata are met with at various localities. There are, however, considerable expanses of metamorphic and Gondwāna rocks. The Upper Gondwānas occur in the hills abutting on Narsinghpur and Hoshangābād, while south of these the Lower Gondwāna or Motur group is found. A stretch of crystalline rock extends over the west of the Chhindwāra *tahsīl* and runs south-eastwards through the centre of Sausar. There are several coal-fields in the District.

Botany. The 'reserved' forests lie principally on the southern range of the Sātpurās and on an irregular line of hills in the west of the District, while the northern range is covered by private forest. Teak and *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) are the most important timber trees in the Government forests, while the *jāgīrs* contain some *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*). Among other trees may be mentioned *tinsā* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*), *shīsham* (*Dalbergia Sissoo*), and *lendiā* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*). Various climbers, such as *Millettia*,

Bauhinia, *Spatholobus*, and *Porana*, occur; and the undergrowth includes species of *Grewia*, *Zizyphus*, *Phyllanthus*, and *Cleistanthus*. Among grasses may be mentioned *dūb* (*Cynodon dactylon*), *kusal* (*Pollinia argentea*), and *rūsa* (*Andropogon Schoenanthus*).

Game is by no means plentiful in the forests. Tigers are seldom met with, though leopards are more numerous and the true hunting leopard has been shot in Chhindwāra. A few wild buffalo and a fair number of bison are contained in the *jāgīrdāri* forests, and the *bārāsinghā* or swamp deer is found in the District. Chhindwāra is not a good District for game birds as there are very few tanks; but fish are found in the rivers and large streams in considerable numbers, and the mahseer in the Pench afford excellent sport, some specimens reaching a weight of 40 lb. **Fauna.**

The climate in most parts is cold and healthy, being probably the most favourable in the Province. The heat is seldom severe, while the light rainfall makes the monsoon season pleasant. In the cold season the temperature frequently falls below freezing-point, but ice is not often seen. The variations of temperature in different parts of the District correspond to those of elevation, the Sausar *tahsīl* having the same hot climate as Nāgpur, while the highest range of the *jāgīrs* is as cool as Pachmarhī. The general health of the population is good, and epidemic disease is rare. **Climate and temperature.**

The annual rainfall at Chhindwāra averages 42 inches, that for Sausar being apparently somewhat less, if the returns are to be relied on. **Rainfall.**

Deogarh, the head-quarters of the old Gond dynasty of Chhindwāra and Nāgpur, is a village about 24 miles south-west of Chhindwāra, picturesquely situated on a crest of the hills. For a short period towards the end of its existence, the Deogarh kingdom became of such importance as to overshadow Mandlā and Chānda, and to take first place among the Gond States. Of its earlier history practically nothing is known, but here, as elsewhere, popular tradition tells of a Gaolī kingdom preceding the Gonds. The mythical Gond hero Jātba, who founded the dynasty, was born from a virgin under a bean plant, and was protected by a cobra, who came and spread its hood over him during the heat of the day, when his mother left him to go to her work. When he grew up he became famous for his feats of strength, and entered the service of the twin Gaolī kings, Ransūr and Ghansūr, whom he subsequently slew with a magic sword, and taking the kingdom in **History.**

their stead became the first Gond ruler. The forts of Patansaongī and Nagardhan below the *ghāts* are attributed to him. From Jātba, whose date is absolutely uncertain, to Bakht Buland, at the end of the seventeenth century, tradition is almost silent. This prince went to Delhi and entered the service of Aurangzeb. He is supposed to have gained by his military achievements the favour of the emperor, by whom he was persuaded to become a Muhammadan. He was acknowledged as Rāja of Deogarh, and returned from Delhi bringing with him a number of artificers and husbandmen, both Hindu and Muhammadan. He enlarged his dominions at the expense of Chānda and Mandlā, and established many new towns and villages, also founding the city of Nāgpur. Bakht Buland's successor, Chānd Sultān, removed the capital to Nāgpur, which he made a walled town. The subsequent fall of the Gond dynasty and the acquisition of the Deogarh kingdom by Raghujī Bhonsla belong to the history of Nāgpur. Chhindwāra became a part of the Marāthā kingdom; and during the latter period of the Bhonsla rule it suffered severely from rack-renting, and from the depredations of the Gond hill chiefs, who, as the Marāthā administration grew weaker, came down from their mountain fortresses and plundered and harassed the country without restriction. When Appa Sāhib was being sent to Allahābād in custody after the battle of Sītābaldī in 1818, he escaped to the territories of these chiefs and was there joined by the Pindāri leader Chītū. The two were well received by the Gond *jāgīrdārs*, and gave some trouble before they were expelled and the country pacified. After the deposition of Appa Sāhib, Chhindwāra was for some years administered by a British Superintendent under the control of the Resident at Nāgpur. It finally lapsed to the British Government, with the rest of the Nāgpur territories, in 1853. Since the formation of the District, the Almod, Bariām Pagāra, and part of the Pachmarhī *jāgīr* have been transferred to Hoshangābād, the Adegaon estate to Seonī, and the Bordehī tract to Betūl.

Archaeology.

Numerous remains of wells, tanks, and buildings at Deogarh show that the old Gond capital must have extended over a large area. The District is, however, singularly bare of notable buildings, even important shrines being represented only by a *chabūtra* or platform and not by a temple. The names of several hills, such as Haryāgarh and Garjūgarh, preserve the recollection of the troublous times when they were crowned with forts, but these have now entirely vanished.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 372,899; (1891) 407,494; (1901) 407,927. The decade between 1881 and 1891 was prosperous and the population increased steadily, the lowest increment being in the *jāgīrs*. The last Census shows the total population as almost stationary; but there has been an increase of 3 per cent. in the *mālguzāri* portion of the Chhindwāra *tahsīl*, and a heavy decline of 11 per cent. in the *jāgīrs*. The District did not suffer so heavily as the rest of the Province in 1897, but was severely affected in 1900, and there was probably some immigration from the *jāgīrs* into the *mālguzāri* area in both years. The District has four towns—CHHINDWĀRA, the District head-quarters, PĀNDHURNĀ, MOHGAON, and SAUSAR—and 1,751 inhabited villages. The principal statistics of population in 1901 are shown below:—

Tahsil.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Chhindwāra	3,528	1	1,368	286,779	81	– 0.1	5,473
Sausar	1,103	3	383	121,148	110	+ 0.6	3,632
District total	4,631	4	1,751	407,927	88	+ 0.1	9,105

There are considerable variations in density in different areas, and the open part of the Sausar *tahsīl* is very thickly populated. The figures for religion show that 61½ per cent. of the population are Hindus, 35 per cent. Animists, and 3 per cent. Muhammadans. The majority of the Gonds and Korkūs are still returned as professing their tribal religion. Of the Muhammadans 3,645 live in towns. About 45 per cent. of the population speak the Bundelī dialect of Western Hindī, 19 per cent. Marāthī, and 25½ per cent. Gondī. About two-thirds of the Gonds are returned as speaking their own language. Most of the Marāthī speakers live in the Sausar *tahsīl*, which adjoins Nāgpur and contains many Marāthā immigrants.

Their castes and occupations.

Brāhmans (8,000) are the principal landowning caste, including a few Mārwāri or Pallīwāl Brāhmans who are professional money-lenders. The chief agricultural castes are Kurmīs (8,000) and Kunbīs (21,000), Bhoyars (17,000), Lodhīs (9,000), Kirārs (8,000), and Raghuvansis (4,000). The Kurmīs are wheat-growers and are found in the Chaurai tract, while the Kunbīs raise the cotton and *jowār* of the

Sausar *tahsīl.* The Lodhīs and Raghuvansis, though found only in small numbers, are fairly large landowners, and both are good cultivators. The Bhoyars are found in the Pāndhurnā valley and along the head of the *ghāts* between Sausar and Chhindwāra. The Ahīrs (33,000) are professional cattle-breeders and landowners. The Gonds (137,000), the old owners of the soil, constitute a third of the population, and all the *jāgīrdārs* with two exceptions are Rāj Gonds. They reside principally in the northern hills and forests, but also in the open country. At the time of the wheat harvest they go down in large numbers to the Narbadā valley, and obtain sufficient grain as wages to support them for a couple of months. Korkūs number nearly 19,000, or $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the population. They include the subdivision of Mowāsis, who consider themselves superior to the ordinary Korkū. The Korkūs are even poorer than the Gonds; they are not landholders at all, and where the two tribes are found together the Gonds have possession of the open country and the Korkūs are relegated to the most jungly villages. About 72 per cent. of the District population are shown as supported by agriculture.

Christian missions. Christians number 474, including 455 natives, of whom the majority are converts of the Swedish Lutheran Mission at Chhindwāra. This body supports a large orphanage and several schools, and has also a village and some out-stations.

General agricultural conditions. The soils vary from a deep black loam ten feet or more in depth to a thin red or yellow soil only an inch or two thick. Good black or brown soil covers about 23 per cent. of the cultivated area, and inferior gravelly or sandy soil the balance. In the Sausar *tahsīl* the shallow brown soil, when manured, produces excellent crops of cotton and *jowār.* Where the country is undulating, rich black clay is found in the depressions, brown loam on the slopes, and a thin covering of stony red earth on the ridges, while the open plains of Chaurai and Mohkher consist of stretches of deep black soil. The band of crystalline rock running through the east of Chhindwāra produces the yellow soil which is suitable for rice, and a little of this is also found in Sausar. In the *jāgīrs* the land is genērally of the poorest quality.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops. An area of 1,597 square miles is comprised in the ten *jāgīrdāri* estates, 92 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue, 5,000 acres have been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules, and 55 square miles have been disforested

and are being settled on the *ryotwāri* tenure. The remainder of the village area is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The following table gives the principal statistics of cultivation in 1903-4, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Chhindwāra .	3,528	1,267	8	1,106	381
Sausar . .	1,103	437	2	177	331
Total	4,631	1,704	10	1,283	712

There is still considerable room for extension of cultivation, but the land remaining to be brought under the plough is usually of very poor quality. At present nearly 25 per cent. of the occupied area is under old or new fallow, but this proportion is abnormal, the usual figure being about 19 per cent. Resting fallows are frequently given in every alternate year on the poorest soils. The principal crops now are wheat, covering 308 square miles, and *jowār*, which is grown by itself or mixed with the pulse *arhar* (*Cajanus indicus*) and occupies 280 square miles. Next in importance are the small millets *kodon* and *kutkī* with an area of 199 square miles, and the oilseeds *til* and *jagnī*, 185 square miles. A noticeable feature in the returns of the past few years is the great increase in the popularity of *jowār*, which has partially replaced wheat as the staple food-grain of the District. Sugar-cane was formerly an important product, but in 1903-4 only 1,600 acres were planted with it.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

During the thirty years up to 1893 the cropped area increased by 43 per cent., while in the next ten years a further rise of 11 per cent. took place. The area under the valuable cotton crop expanded from 55 square miles in 1894 to 143 in 1904. *San*-hemp (*Crotalaria juncea*), which has recently become a very profitable crop, covers 10,000 acres. Only Rs. 8,000 was advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act during the ten years ending 1904, and 1·71 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

Cattle are bred principally in the Khamārpāni tract in the east of the District, and on the banks of the Kanhān river near Bhatoriā. The Khamārpāni breed are large and handsome animals, with high foreheads, white in colour, and good trotters. They are bred by professional herdsmen, and great care is exercised in the selection of bulls, which cost about

Rs. 150 apiece. The bullocks are used for cultivation in heavy black soil, and also for drawing the light *chhakrās* or travelling carts. The Kanhān river oxen are smaller, and of different colours—red, black, and speckled. They are used generally for cultivation in hilly and stony land. The trotting cattle kept by the richer landholders are bought as yearlings, and kept carefully until they are two or three years old, being allowed to graze freely in the standing crops, and fed liberally when these are not on the ground. A good pair will cover 50 miles in 10 hours, and races are held annually at Taegaon Khairī near Borgaon. Buffaloes are bred to a small extent, but only for the sake of their milk, and are not used for cultivation. The young bulls are generally neglected, and allowed to die. Goats and sheep are bred by Gādris and also by Ahīrs and Khatīks, for food, for their wool, and for the supply of manure. The males only are eaten as food, and many castes will not eat sheep at all. They are very highly prized for manure in the Sausar *tahsīl*, where they are folded on the cotton-fields.

Irrigation. The only crops that are irrigated are vegetables, spices, and sugar-cane, and very rarely wheat. Such irrigation as exists is carried on from wells, or in rare cases from water-holes dug at the foot of a bank overhanging a stream. There are more than 4,000 temporary and 400 masonry wells, which irrigate about 7,000 acres. Some projects for tanks have been prepared by the Irrigation department.

Forests. The Government forests cover an area of 712 square miles, of which 663 are 'reserved,' and the remainder has been assigned for disforestation and colonization. Pure teak forest is found only in a few small and scattered patches, but teak mixed with inferior trees occurs on the hills of the Silewāni and Ambāra ranges. Bamboos are found in these forests and their reproduction is good. The greater part of the forests consists of *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) mixed with other trees, while a considerable area contains inferior species, in which reproduction is very poor, and no protection is attempted. The propagation of the lac insect has been taken in hand as a forest industry and is proceeding successfully. The extraction of *rūsa* oil from the grass called *tikāri* (*Andropogon Schoenanthus*) for purposes of export has also commenced. The forest revenue in 1903–4 amounted to Rs. 70,000, of which Rs. 19,000 was realized from sales of timber, Rs. 24,000 from grazing, and Rs. 8,000 from minor produce. The *jāgīrdāri* forests do not contain much valuable timber.

Minerals.

The Pench and Kanhān coal-fields lie from east to west in the hill country about 12 miles north of Chhindwāra town. Mining leases have been granted and an extension of the railway to the local fields has been completed. An analysis of the coal shows 62 per cent. of fixed carbon, 28 per cent. of volatile matter, and 10·4 per cent. of ash; and the prospects of the field are very promising. Manganese has been found in several villages in the Sausar *tahsīl* on the hills bordering Kātol, and also below the *ghāts*; and prospecting and mining leases have been taken out.

Arts and manufactures.

There are colonies of cotton weavers in all the towns and several of the larger villages, who produce moderately fine cloth. At Norhiā Karwāl, near Chhindwāra town, head-cloths are woven from threads of counts as fine as 100's. Mill-spun thread is now solely used, with the exception that the Gādris or shepherd caste spin a stout blue and white thread from which sacks are made for holding grain. *Tasar* silk is produced and woven locally to a small extent. The Gādris also weave blankets in different colours, the wool being dyed with lac and imported dyes. *Sān*-hemp is grown principally for export, but hemp matting is also woven by Banjārās for local use. Ropes made of the grass called *kāmi* or *boyā* are largely used by all classes for household purposes. Brass utensils are made at Chhindwāra and Lodhīkhedā; but the industry is not flourishing, and the Chhindwāra brass-workers have taken up the manufacture of zinc ornaments as a subsidiary occupation. The largest market in the District is that of Rāmākonā on the Chhindwāra-Nāgpur road, 50 miles from Nāgpur, where as many as 3,000 carts are collected on a bazar day in the season. Lodhīkhedā and Pāndhurnā are the markets next in importance, and after them Palatwāda, Mordongrī, and Mohkher. A cotton-ginning factory at Mohgaon has been working since 1892, with a capital of Rs. 50,000. Two gins were opened in Pāndhurnā in 1903, and a cotton press is being constructed.

Commerce.

Wheat, cotton, oilseeds, and *san*-hemp are the principal exports of agricultural produce. *Gur* (unrefined sugar) is sent to Berār and Nāgpur, but in decreasing quantities. Potatoes and ginger are supplied to Nāgpur and Seonī, and timber, minor forest produce, hides and horns, and manganese are other articles of export. Salt comes from Gujarāt through Pipariā to Chhindwāra, and from Bombay through Nāgpur to Sausar. Mauritius sugar is generally used. English and Indian mill-woven cotton cloths are worn in large villages and towns,

and hand-woven cloths in rural tracts. Iron, brass, and other metals and hardware are imported from Bombay through Nāgpur. The trade of the District is conducted by Mārwāri Baniās and Cutchī Muhammadans. Telis act as local carriers, purchasing grain and other goods and taking them to Rāmākonā market for sale to the Nāgpur agents.

Railways and roads.

The District has till recently not been touched by the railway; but a branch of the Sātpurā extension of the Bengal-Nāgpur line through Seonī to Chhindwāra town was opened in 1905, with a length of 29 miles and three stations in the District. A short extension of the line to the coal-fields north of Chhindwāra has also been constructed. Metalled roads lead from Chhindwāra to Nāgpur through Sausar, a distance of 80 miles, and to Seonī, 43 miles. Other roads are those to Pipariā station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, to Narsinghpur, and to Multai in Betūl District. The principal outlet for trade is the Nāgpur road, and next to this the Jubbulpore road through Seonī. The District has 137 miles of metalled and 210 miles of unmetalled roads, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 68,000. The Public Works department has charge of 269 miles of road, and the District council of 78 miles. There are avenues of trees on 31 miles.

Famine.

The only years in which failures of crops sufficiently serious to cause distress have been recorded were 1868-9, 1896-7, and 1899-1900. During the first two of these Chhindwāra fared better than most other parts of the Province. In 1868, the year of the Bundelkhand famine, there was only slight distress, while in 1896 the only crops that completely failed were the small millets on which the hill tribes subsist. Distress was mainly confined to the *jāgīr* estates and the western portion of the Chhindwāra *tahsīl*. The maximum number on relief in October, 1897, was about 24,000, and the expenditure 5·7 lakhs. In 1899-1900 there was a general failure of crops, with the exception of cotton, which gave a fair out-turn. More than 70,000 persons, or 17 per cent. of the population, were being relieved in May, 1900, and the total expenditure was 16 lakhs. A large number of village tanks were constructed or repaired; and the relief works also included the construction of some forest roads, the raising of the embankment for the new line of railway, and various improvements to the main road communications of the District.

District

The Deputy-Commissioner is aided by one Assistant or

Extra-Assistant Commissioner. For administrative purposes the District is divided into two *tahsīls*, Chhindwāra and Sausar, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. A Forest officer of the Imperial service is usually posted to the District. Subdivisions and staff.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and a Subordinate Judge, and a Munsif for each *tahsīl*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nerbudda Division has superior civil and criminal jurisdiction. The crime of the District is not heavy, and the civil litigation is of the ordinary type. Civil and criminal justice.

The share of the revenue left to the *pātel* or manager of the village by the Marāthā administration was usually only about 15 per cent. of the 'assets.' Out of this, moreover, he had to remunerate the village servants, and make certain charitable payments and allowances, while he was also liable at any time to be called upon to pay an extra cess, over and above the regular revenue. During the latter period of Marāthā rule their territories were mercilessly rack-rented, in the endeavour to raise their total revenue to the figure at which it had stood before they had been obliged to cede Orissa and Berār by the Treaty of Deogaon. The District was thus in a very impoverished condition when it was taken over by the British in 1853. Triennial settlements were made for ten years, the Government share, in continuation of previous practice, being fixed at about 80 per cent. of the 'assets.' Between 1863 and 1867 a thirty years' settlement was made, the Government demand being approximately 66 per cent. of the prospective 'assets.' This resulted in a reduction of the existing revenue by about 9 per cent., and the demand was finally fixed at 2·14 lakhs. At this settlement the village headmen, who had previously held the position of managers or farmers, received proprietary and transferable rights in their villages. During the currency of the thirty years' settlement the cropped area increased by 41 per cent., and it was calculated that the prices of agricultural produce had doubled. The District was resettled between 1891 and 1895 for a period varying from fourteen to seventeen years. The revised demand was fixed at 2·97 lakhs, of which Rs. 6,000 is 'assigned,' giving an increase of 37 per cent. on the former demand, and falling at 55 per cent. on the actual 'assets.' The average revenue incidence per acre was R. 0–5–11 (maximum R. 0–10–11, minimum R. 0–2–2), and the rental incidence R. 0–9–9 (maximum Rs. 1–0–7, minimum R. 0–4–0). The receipts of land and total revenue for a series of years are shown on the next page, in thousands of rupees :— Land revenue administration.

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue . .	2,21	2,21	3,68	2,97
Total revenue . .	3,84	5,02	6,47	6,80

Local boards and municipalities. The management of local affairs, outside municipal areas, is entrusted to a District council and three local boards, including one for the *jāgīrs*. The income of the District council in 1903-4 was Rs. 44,000, while the expenditure on education was Rs. 18,000 and on public works Rs. 11,000. CHHINDWĀRA, SAUSAR, and PĀNDHURNĀ are municipal towns.

Police and jails. The force under the District Superintendent of police consists of 322 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, besides 1,541 watchmen for 1,755 towns and inhabited villages. The police administration in the *jāgīrs* has recently been taken under direct supervision. Chhindwāra town has a District jail, with accommodation for 121 prisoners, including 9 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 52.

Education. In respect of education Chhindwāra stands tenth among the Districts of the Province, 2·2 per cent. of the population (4·5 males and 0·1 females) being able to read and write. The proportion of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 8 per cent. Statistics of the number of pupils are as follows: (1880-1) 1,749; (1890-1) 2,181; (1900-1) 3,094; (1903-4) 4,974, including 102 girls. The educational institutions comprise an English middle school at Chhindwāra, five vernacular middle schools, and 63 primary schools. The expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 30,000, of which Rs. 20,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 2,000 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries. The District has 4 dispensaries, with accommodation for 34 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 25,288, of whom 362 were in-patients, and 883 operations were performed. The total expenditure was Rs. 6,000.

Vaccination. Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal areas of Chhindwāra, Sausar, and Pāndhurnā, and in the towns of Lodhīkhedā and Mohgaon. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903-4 was 47 per 1,000 of the District population, a high proportion.

[C. W. Montgomerie, *Settlement Report*, 1899. A District Gazetteer is being prepared.]

Chhindwāra Tahsīl.—Northern *tahsīl* of Chhindwāra Dis-

trict, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 46′ and 22° 49′ N. and 78° 10′ and 79° 24′ E., with an area of 3,528 square miles. The population in 1901 was 286,779, compared with 287,043 in 1891. The density is 81 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, CHHINDWĀRA (population, 9,736), the *tahsīl* and District head-quarters, and 1,368 inhabited villages. The demand for land revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 1,78,000, and for cesses Rs. 24,000. The *tahsīl* consists of an upland plateau broken by small hills, which forms the *mālguzāri* tract or that held on the ordinary proprietary tenure, and of a mass of higher hill and forest country which forms the estates of ten *jāgīrdārs* or hereditary chieftains, covering 1,597 square miles to the north. Excluding 381 square miles of Government forest and the *jāgīr* area of 1,597 square miles, 68 per cent. of the remaining *mālguzāri* area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area of the whole *tahsīl* in 1903-4 was 1,267 square miles. Of the area included in the *jāgīrs*, 495 square miles are forest.

Sausar Tahsīl.—Southern *tahsīl* of Chhindwāra District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 28′ and 21° 55′ N. and 78° 20′ and 79° 16′ E., with an area of 1,103 square miles. The population in 1901 was 121,148, compared with 120,451 in 1891. The density is 110 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains three towns—SAUSAR (population, 4,785), the *tahsīl* head-quarters, MOHGAON (5,730), and PĀNDHURNĀ (8,904)—and 383 inhabited villages. Excluding 331 square miles of Government forest, 62 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 437 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,25,000, and for cesses Rs. 14,000. The *tahsīl* consists of a tract of undulating country lying below the Sātpurā range, covered with light shallow soil, and is one of the chief cotton-growing areas of the Province.

Chhindwāra Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 4′ N. and 78° 57′ E., on the Bodrī, 80 miles from Nāgpur by road. A branch narrow-gauge line of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway was opened to Chhindwāra in 1905. The town stands on the Sātpurā plateau at an elevation of 2,200 feet, and possesses a pleasant and healthy climate. The name is derived from the *chhīnd* or bastard date-palms which are found in the vicinity. Chhindwāra is said to have been founded by one Ratan Raghuvansi, who let loose a goat, and on the place where it lay down built a house, burying the goat alive beneath

the foundations. The goat is worshipped as the tutelary deity of the town. Population (1901), 9,736. Chhindwāra was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 13,000. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 17,000, the principal head of receipt being octroi. The town is a centre for local trade, and the handicrafts carried on include the manufacture of pottery and cotton hand-weaving. A small quantity of *tasar* silk is woven. There is a printing press, which publishes a monthly magazine in Hindī. Three weekly markets are held for the sale of cattle, timber, and grain. Chhindwāra possesses an English middle school and branch school, a private school teaching Arabic, and two dispensaries, including a police hospital. A station of the Swedish Lutheran Mission has been established here.

Mohgaon.—Town in the Sausar *tahsīl* of Chhindwāra District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 38′ N. and 78° 45′ E., on a tributary of the river Jām, 37 miles south of Chhindwāra town, and 5 miles from the Nāgpur road. Population (1901), 5,730. The municipality has recently been abolished, and a town fund is now raised for purposes of sanitation. A cotton-ginning factory was opened in 1892 with a capital of Rs. 50,000, and cotton cloths are woven by hand. Mohgaon contains a vernacular middle school.

Pāndhurnā.—Town in the Sausar *tahsīl* of Chhindwāra District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 36′ N. and 78° 32′ E., on the Jām river, 54 miles south-west of Chhindwāra town, on the road from Betūl to Nāgpur. Population (1901), 8,904. A curious local custom may be noted. On the night of the Polā festival the *kotwār* or village watchman plants a *palās*-tree (*Butea frondosa*) in the bed of the Jām river. Next day the people of Pāndhurnā contend with those of the adjoining village of Sawargaon for the possession of the tree. Stones are thrown and wounds are frequently inflicted. But in the end the Pāndhurnā people must always get the tree or some calamity will occur during the year. Pāndhurnā was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 3,000. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 4,000, principally derived from a house tax. Two cotton-ginning factories have recently been opened, and a pressing factory is under construction. Cotton cloths are woven by hand. Pāndhurnā contains a vernacular middle school.

Sausar Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same

name, Chhindwāra District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 40′ N. and 78° 48′ E., on the Chhindwāra-Nāgpur road, 33 miles from Chhindwāra town and 46 from Nāgpur. Population (1901), 4,785. Sausar was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 1,700. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 2,000, principally derived from a house tax. Cotton hand-weaving is the only industry. Sausar possesses an English middle school and a dispensary. A weekly cattle-fair is held at Berdī, a mile from the town.

NĀGPUR DIVISION

Nāgpur Division.—The southern Division of the Central Provinces, extending from 18° 42′ to 22° 24′ N. and from 78° 3′ to 81° 3′ E. The Division consists of a large plain lying along the southern base of the Sātpurā hill ranges, and comprised in the valleys of the Wardhā and Waingangā rivers, with a long strip of hilly country on the eastern border. The Nāgpur Division includes five Districts, as shown below :—

District.	Area * in square miles.	Population * in 1901.	Land revenue and cesses, 1903-4, in thousands of rupees.
Wardhā . . .	2,428	385,103	7,05
Nāgpur . . .	3,840	751,844	10,94
Chānda . . .	10,156	581,315	3,75
Bhandāra . . .	3,965	663,062	5,34
Bālāghāt . . .	3,132	325,371	2,78
Total	23,521	2,706,695	29,86

* The District figures of area and population have been adjusted to allow for some changes of territory which have taken place since the Census of 1901, including the projected transfer of part of Chānda District, with an area of 593 square miles, to the Madras Presidency.

Of these, Wardhā and Nāgpur in the valley of the Wardhā river on the west, with shallow black soil and a light rainfall, constitute the most important cotton-growing tract in the Province, while Bhandāra and parts of Chānda and Bālāghāt in the valley of the Waingangā have been named the 'lake country' of Nāgpur, owing to the number of fine tanks constructed for the irrigation of rice. To the north of Bālāghāt and down the eastern side of Chānda stretch lines of hills approaching the Godāvari river in the extreme south of the Province. The head-quarters of the Commissioner are at NĀGPUR CITY. The population of the Division was 2,758,116 in 1881, and increased to 2,982,539 in 1891 or by 8 per cent., the decade having been generally prosperous. At the Census of 1901 the population had decreased to 2,728,063 or by 8½ per cent., the principal losses being in the eastern or rice Districts, which were severely affected by distress or famine in several years, while the population of the western or cotton

Districts, which escaped more lightly, remained almost stationary. In 1901 Hindus numbered nearly 84 per cent. of the total, and Animists 13 per cent., while the followers of other religions included Musalmāns (86,931), Jains (6,624), and Christians (7,113), of whom 3,039 were Europeans and Eurasians. The total area is 23,521 square miles, and the density of population 115 persons per square mile. The Division contains 24 towns out of the Provincial total of 59, and 7,898 villages. NĀGPUR (127,734), the head-quarters of the Central Provinces Administration, is the principal commercial centre, and KAMPTEE (38,888) is a cantonment ten miles from NĀGPUR. CHĀNDA, BHĀNDAK, and RĀMTEK contain interesting archaeological remains.

Wardhā District.—District in the Nāgpur Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 18′ and 21° 22′ N. and 78° 3′ and 79° 14′ E., and occupying the west of the Nāgpur plain, at the foot of the Sātpurā Hills adjoining Berār, with an area of 2,428 square miles. It is bounded on the north by Amraotī District; on the west by the Amraotī and Yeotmāl Districts of Berār; on the south by Chānda; and on the east by Nāgpur. It consists of a long strip of land extending from north-west to south-east along the right bank of the river WARDHĀ, from which the District takes its name, very narrow at its northern extremity and gradually increasing in width towards the south. An outlying spur of the Sātpurā range runs down through the north of the District, and most of the Arvī *tahsīl*, with the exception of a strip along the bank of the Wardhā, is hilly country. The central and southern portion is an undulating plain, intersected by streams, and broken here and there by isolated hills, rising abruptly from its surface. The open country is in parts well wooded, but over considerable areas is scantily furnished with any trees but the thorny *babūl* (*Acacia arabica*); and as the detached hills are generally bare and stony, the landscape presents a somewhat desolate and bleak appearance. The villages, generally situated on slightly elevated ground to enable water to drain off in the rains, consist of clusters of small red-tiled houses, often overtopped by the ruins of a mud fort, a relic of the period of Pindāri raids. Owing to the absence of the sandstone formation, good building stone and gravel are very rare; stone buildings are seldom found outside the towns, while from the commencement of the rainy season the village roads become impassable sloughs of mud. The courses of the smaller streams are frequently marked by lines or clumps of bastard date-palms

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

(*Phoenix sylvestris*), the favourite lairs of wild hog. In the north the hill ranges are clothed with young teak and other timber, and this is almost the only regular forest to be found in the District. The hills generally do not rise more than 400 feet above the level of the plain, but towards the south of the range are the peaks of Mālegaon (1,615 feet above sea-level), Nāndgaon (1,760 feet), and Garamsur (1,976 feet). Wardhā itself is about 930 feet above the sea. The only considerable river is the Wardhā, which forms the northern and western boundary of the District, and is crossed by the railway at Pulgaon. Other streams are the Wunnā, the Bor, the Dhām, and the Asodā. These, rising in the northern hills, flow down the length of the District to join the Wardhā towards its southern extremity. But as their whole course is so short, none of them attains to much importance. The Bor and the Dhām are affluents of the Wunnā; and this river, which passes Hinganghāt, ranks next to the Wardhā in size.

Geology. The District is covered by the Deccan trap. The stratification is regular and continuous, and the angle of inclination generally small. The effect of this regularity is seen in the flat tops of the hills and in the horizontal terraces which their sides present. At Hinganghāt and Girar a fresh-water stratum may be traced, and silicified wood and zeolitic amygdules occur.

Botany. The forests are very scanty, and are situated principally in the north of the Arvī *tahsīl* and the south-east of Hinganghāt. Arvī has some teak forest, and the other principal timber trees are *anjan* (*Hardwickia binata*) and *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*). The usual fruit-bearing and sacred trees, such as banyan, tamarind, *nīm* (*Melia Azadirachta*), and *pīpal*, are planted round the villages.

Fauna. There is little forest game. Antelope are fairly numerous in the open country. Wild hog abound all over the plain, and the District is the regular country of the Nāgpur Hunt Club. Among game birds the bustard may be mentioned, which is found in the south of the District.

Rainfall and climate. The annual rainfall at Wardhā town averages 41 inches. The climate is hot and dry, but healthy. Ophthalmia is prevalent in the summer months. Leprosy was formerly a comparatively common disease, but the most recent figures show a large decrease.

History. Very little is definitely known of the history of the District previous to the seventeenth century. Under the Mughal empire Paunār was the head-quarters of a *Sūbah*, subordinate

to the governor of Ellichpur, and in this territory was comprised the greater part of the south of the District. Ashtī, with the north of the District, was held by another Muhammadan family which received *sanads* from Jahāngīr and Aurangzeb. The Muhammadans penetrated into the southern portion of the Central Provinces as far as Wardhā and Chānda, though Nāgpur and the Districts east of it remained practically an unknown country during the period of their ascendancy. On the fall of the Mughal empire the greater part of the District passed under the control of the Gond Rājās of Deogarh in Chhindwāra, and its subsequent history is that of Nāgpur, which shortly afterwards became their capital. But Ashtī, with the tracts adjoining it, seems to have been incorporated in the territories of the Nizām of Hyderābād, who, after the Bhonsla conquest, continued in joint possession with the Marāthās, 40 per cent. of the revenue of the tract going to Hyderābād and 60 per cent. to the Nāgpur Rājā. Wardhā, with the rest of the Nāgpur kingdom, became British territory in 1853, and was formed into a separate District in 1862.

Archaeology.

The archaeological remains are of slight interest, but a number of tombs and temples are objects of pilgrimage. The most important of these is the tomb of a Muhammadan saint, Khwāja Shaikh Farīd, at Girar on the eastern border of the Hinganghāt *tahsīl*. The hill which forms the site of his tomb is covered with fossils of the shape of nutmegs, and these are supposed to have been the stock-in-trade of two Banjārās who mocked the saint, and whose wares were in consequence turned into stones. Many pilgrims, both Hindu and Muhammadan, visit Girar, especially during the Muharram festival. Keljhar, 17 miles north-east of Wardhā, is held to be the site of the city Chakranagar, which is mentioned in the Mahābhārata ; a demon lived near it and took a child from the town every day for his food, until he was killed by the Pāndava brothers. Paunār (on the Dhām river, 5 miles north-east of Wardhā) was formerly a place of considerable importance, and was the seat of a Muhammadan governor. It had a fort of which one of the gateways still remains. Two handsome Muhammadan mausoleums are to be seen at Ashtī.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 387,221; (1891) 400,854; (1901) 385,103. There are 906 inhabited towns and villages. Large villages are numerous, 65 places having a population of more than 1,000 persons. There are six towns—WARDHĀ, HINGANGHĀT, ARVĪ, ASHTĪ, DEOLĪ, and PULGAON— the urban popula-

tion being 11 per cent. of the total. All of these except Ashtī are municipalities. The chief statistics of population in 1901 are shown below :—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Wardhā . .	809	3	314	152,565	188	− 3·6	6,179
Arvī . .	890	2	299	137,737	155	+ 4·8	5,750
Hinganghāt .	729	1	287	94,801	130	−14·9	3,043
District total	2,428	6	900	385,103	158	− 3·9	14,972

A good deal of emigration took place from Hinganghāt in 1897. On the whole, however, the population of the District gained considerably during the decade by immigration from Berār, and also from Chānda and Bhandāra. Famine and scarcity have been mainly confined to the areas in which spring crops are grown, the autumn crops of cotton and *jowār* having always yielded some return. The Arvī *tahsīl*, in which these are the sole staples, has been generally prosperous. About 86 per cent. of the population are Hindus, 10 per cent. Animists, and nearly 4 per cent. Muhammadans. About 75 per cent. of the Gonds in the District are returned as Animists. The statistics of language show that 79 per cent. of the population speak Marāthī; of the remainder, 13,642 persons, probably all Muhammadans, speak Urdū, 25,710 (principally Brāhmans and Rājputs who have come from Northern India) Hindī, 39,385 Gondī, and 2,428 Telugu.

Their castes and occupations.

The principal landholding castes are Marāthā Brāhmans and Kunbīs. Brāhmans (10,000) constitute 3 per cent. and Kunbīs (76,000) 20 per cent. of the population. The leading Brāhman families generally hold the title of Deshpāndia, and the Kunbīs that of Deshmukh. The Deshmukh was an officer who under the Gonds was responsible for the settlement of revenue and its collection from the headmen of a circle of villages, and the Deshpāndia or head *patwāri* kept the revenue accounts of the same circle. The principal cultivating castes are Kunbīs, Telis (39,000), and Mālis (17,000), Telis being considered the most efficient. Gonds number 40,000, or about 10 per cent. of the population. They live in the open country and are generally fairly civilized. There are very few Gond landowners, but numbers of them are tenants and farm-servants; and they are also employed as factory hands, constables, and

forest guards. The Kolams are a small tribe akin to the Gonds, found in the Arvī *tahsīl*, who speak a dialect of Gondī with an admixture of Telugu. About 75 per cent. of the population of the District are dependent on agriculture.

Christians number 146, of whom 62 are Presbyterians and 39 Roman Catholics. The total includes 100 native Christians. The United Free Church of Scotland has a mission station in Wardhā town. Christian missions.

Nearly the whole area of the District consists of a thin covering of black or dark brown soil over a sheet of trap rock. This soil varies in depth from 10 feet to a few inches, the average thickness being about 2 feet. The best black soil is found principally in the level ground along the left bank of the Wardhā river. In the hilly country of the north shallow brown soil is found mixed with sand. General agricultural conditions.

More than 120 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue, and 2,984 acres have been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules. The principal statistics of cultivation in 1903-4 are shown below, with areas in square miles:— Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Wardhā	809	629	1	87	4
Arvī	890	472	2	89	180
Hinganghāt	729	540	½	141	17
Total	2,428	1,641	3½	317	201

The occupied area is extremely large, amounting to 81 per cent. of the total, excluding Government forest. The largest proportion of unoccupied land is in the Arvī *tahsīl*, where 33 per cent. of the proprietary area is waste. Over most of the District the limit of cultivation has been reached. Cotton and *jowār* (*Sorghum vulgare*) are now the staple crops, covering 573 and 454 square miles respectively. About 160 square miles are devoted to wheat and 128 to linseed. The crops for the spring harvest are grown principally in the Hinganghāt *tahsīl* and the southern part of Wardhā, and only to a small extent in Arvī. A noticeable feature of the recent statistics is the substitution of autumn for spring crops, the area under cotton and *jowār* grown separately and with an admixture of the pulse *arhar* having increased from 52 to 66 per cent. of the total in the last few years. This is partly to be attributed to the succession of poor wheat harvests, and more particularly to the high price of cotton and the large profits which are

obtained from its cultivation. The area under linseed (128 square miles) is larger in Wardhā than in any District of the Provinces except Nāgpur, Raipur, and Bilāspur. As this crop is adversely affected by damp more often than by drought, the soil and climate of Wardhā are favourable to its growth. *Jowār* has now replaced wheat as the staple food of all except the richest classes. Rice is sown on a very small area, chiefly in the Girar *pargana* of Hinganghāt. There is scarcely any sugar-cane. Garden crops cover about 2,500 acres, and irrigation is practically confined to these. Turmeric (*haldī*) is cultivated in the Hinganghāt *tahsīl*, especially at Waigaon, called Haldiā Waigaon on this account, where a large irrigation tank has been constructed. The District has a number of orange and banana plantations; the bananas of Arvī have some reputation; betel-vine gardens exist in Ashtī and Jalgaon.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

At the present time the area under the valuable cotton crop is increasing annually, while more care is expended on its cultivation than formerly, and manure is applied to it whenever obtainable. The three-coultered sowing drill and weeding hoe-plough of the Deccan are generally used in Wardhā, and some improvement has been made in their construction. Fodder-cutting machines recently introduced by the Agricultural department are considered to double the value of *jowār* fodder, and several landowners have purchased them. The Hindī agricultural gazette published by the department has a considerable circulation in Wardhā, and some landowners have sent their sons to the agricultural training school at Nāgpur. A total of Rs. 31,000 was advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act during the decade ending 1904, from which a large number of new wells have been constructed and a few field-embankments made. Nearly 3 lakhs was given out in agricultural loans during the same period, about half of this sum having been advanced in the famine of 1900.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

Cattle are bred all over the District and principally in the Arvī *tahsīl*. Special bulls are kept for breeding by all considerable cattle-owners. The cattle trot well, and are generally white, and of moderate size, being larger than those of the hill Districts, but smaller than the Berār breeds. Cattle are also imported from Maheer in Hyderābād and from Berār, Hyderābād bullocks being the most expensive. Good milch cows are bred in Arvī, and sometimes give as much as 7 to 8 seers (14 to 16 lbs.) of milk, but the people make no use of cow's

milk, as they realize that the calves are weakened if deprived of it. Buffaloes are also bred for manufacturing *ghī*. They are not used for draught purposes except on the Wardhā river, where they are employed to carry water. The young bulls are sold in the rice Districts, or sometimes killed at birth by professional cattle-breeders. Goats and sheep are kept by Dhangars, who slaughter the goats for food, and make rough blankets from the wool of the sheep. A few cultivators have also begun to keep them for their manure.

Irrigation.

There are about 700 permanent and 800 temporary wells, which irrigate 2,400 acres. The ordinary level of the subsoil water is 40 feet below the surface, and wells are very costly, as blasting is usually necessary. Little or no scope exists for remunerative irrigation works.

Forests.

The forests of the District cover an area of 201 square miles, being situated principally in the Arvī *tahsīl* with a small block in the south-east of Hinganghāt. There is some teak forest in Arvī. Bamboos are very rare. Though the forests are small and not valuable, the large local demand for produce causes a substantial revenue to be derived from them. This amounted in 1903-4 to Rs. 39,000, of which Rs. 12,000 was realized from sales of timber, Rs. 9,000 from fuel, and Rs. 16,000 from grazing.

Minerals.

Wardhā contains no minerals. The black basalt supplies a stone which is used for building, but it is extremely hard and difficult to dress, and hence is seldom employed for ornamental building. Quarries are worked at Saongī, Borgaon, Nāchangaon, and Tuljāpur.

Arts and manufactures.

Cotton-weaving and dyeing are practically the only hand industries, and these are rapidly being destroyed by the competition of the mills. Nearly all large villages still, however, contain a number of Koshtīs, who produce rough country cloth, obtaining their yarn from the mills; while in a few places the dyeing of women's *sārīs* and cotton carpets with imported dyes affords a precarious sustenance to members of the usual dyeing castes. Coarse tape for bedsteads is woven from home-spun thread by Gārpagāris, who have been compelled by lack of custom to abandon their ancestral calling of the protection of the crops from hail; and hemp matting and bags are made by the caste of Bhāmtas, who grow the hemp themselves, as no other Hindu caste will consent to do so. The Bhāmtas were formerly notorious thieves, and it was said that no girl of the caste accepted a suitor until he had been arrested not less than fourteen times, when she considered that

he had attained to manhood; but they have now settled down to this more legitimate avocation. Pārdi is a centre of hemp (*san*) cultivation.

Factories. With the expansion of the cotton trade, ginning and pressing factories have recently been constructed in large numbers, and new ones are opened every year. Hinganghāt has a spinning and weaving mill, and a second spinning mill, while another spinning mill has been opened at Pulgaon. These mills contain altogether 325 looms and 63,040 spindles, and represent about 24·5 lakhs of capital. Their out-turn in 1904 was 61,128 cwt. of yarn and 10,272 cwt. of cloth, most of which was disposed of in Berār and the Central Provinces. The District also contains 39 ginning factories with 1,065 gins and 16 cotton presses, distributed among the towns and larger villages. The aggregate capital invested in these factories is 26·23 lakhs, and their annual profits were estimated at 3·4 lakhs in 1904. Most of them are owned by Mārwāri Baniās, and a few by Marāthā Brāhmans and others. The ginning and pressing factories only work for four or five months in the year. Twenty-six of these factories have been opened within the last five years.

Commerce. Cotton, wheat, and linseed are the staple exports of the District. Cotton-seed has lately been exported to Europe. In good years a little *jowār* is sent to Bhandāra, and *arhar* to Calcutta for consumption in Bengal. Hides are sent both to Bombay and Calcutta, and skins to Madras, where they are cured before being shipped to Europe. Yarn and cotton cloth are supplied by the mills of Hinganghāt and Pulgaon to other Districts of the Province and to Cawnpore. There is little or no surplus of forest produce; small teak timber from the Arvī forests is sent to Berār, but it is also imported into the District from Betūl. Small quantities of plantains are exported from Arvī. Cotton piece-goods are obtained from Europe through Bombay and Calcutta, and from the Nāgpur and Cawnpore mills. Silk cloths are imported from Umrer and Hyderābād. The salt used is sea-salt from the Thāna District of Bombay. Sugar comes from the Mauritius, and also from Mirzāpur, but the latter is the more expensive, and is consumed by the richer classes. *Gur* or unrefined country sugar is brought from Bangalore, and also from Poona District and Kolhāpur State. Potatoes are obtained from the United Provinces and Chhindwāra. Brass vessels are imported from Bhandāra, and from Poona and Nāsik, and glass bangles from Bombay. Berār wheat is consumed in the Arvī *tahsīl*,

and rice is brought from Bhandāra and Chhattīsgarh into the District generally. About 25 per cent. of the export grain trade is in the hands of a European firm, and the remainder is managed by Mārwāri Baniās and Muhammadan Cutchīs. The Cutchīs export grain, and import salt, sugar, and groceries for retail sale. The *ghī* trade is in the hands of Mārwāri Baniās, and that in yarn and cloth is divided between them and Madrasi Komatis. Hides and bones are exported by Madrasi Muhammadans.

Railways and roads.

The Great Indian Peninsula Railway line from Bhusāwal to Nāgpur runs through the centre of the District, having a length of 40 miles and 6 stations within its limits. There is also a branch line from Wardhā junction to Warorā, with a length of 30 miles in the District, and the stations of Sonegaon and Hinganghāt. The chief feeder roads are those leading from Arvī and Deolī to Pulgaon, from Deolī, Khārangnā, and Sailū to Wardhā, from Hingnī to Sindī, and from Pohnā and Samudrapur to Hinganghāt. The District has 48 miles of metalled and 136 of unmetalled roads, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 25,000. The Public Works department maintains 123 miles of road, and the District council 60 miles. There are avenues of trees on 39 miles.

Famine.

In 1832-3 heavy rain in the cold-season months made the autumn crops rot on the threshing-floors, and blighted the spring harvest, causing severe distress and heavy mortality. In 1868-9 Wardhā was not acutely distressed, and as the construction of the railway was in progress, the demand for labour was ample. Again, in 1896-7, the District obtained half a normal harvest, and such distress as occurred was due to the high price of grain. In 1899-1900, owing to the complete failure of the rains, the crop obtained was only a quarter of normal, and this followed a poor harvest in the previous year. Distress was acute, and relief measures continued for fourteen months, 103,000 persons, or nearly 26 per cent. of the population, being in receipt of assistance in July, 1900. The total expenditure was 20 lakhs. Besides road works, some tanks were constructed and improved, and many wells were deepened.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner has a staff of three Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into three *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The District is included in the Nāgpur Forest and Public Works divisions, and has no separate Forest officer or Executive Engineer.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and three Subordinate Judges, two Munsifs at Wardhā, and one each at Arvī and Hinganghāt. The Divisional and Sessions Judge, Nāgpur Division, has civil and criminal jurisdiction in Wardhā. A common form of offence is that of theft of ornaments from the body of persons asleep. Much jewellery is worn, as the people are well-to-do, and it is a general practice to sleep in the open. The civil litigation is heavy, and, owing to the value of land, disputes affecting insignificant areas are not infrequently carried to the highest courts.

Land revenue administration.

Up to 1862 Wardhā formed part of Nāgpur District, and no separate account of its revenue administration need be given. A thirty years' settlement was made between 1862 and 1866, at which proprietary rights were conferred. The revenue was fixed at 4·16 lakhs, which was practically the same as that existing before revision, and represented 79 per cent. of the 'assets,' the proportion taken by the Marāthās having always been very high. During this settlement the District prospered greatly. The increase in cultivation was nearly 18 per cent., while the prices of agricultural produce rose by 150 per cent. The District was reassessed between 1891 and 1894 for a term varying from sixteen to eighteen years. The demand was raised to 6·64 lakhs, which fell at 59½ per cent. on the 'assets,' and was an increase of 25 per cent. on the previous assessment. The average incidence of the revenue per acre is R. 0-10-2 (maximum Rs. 1-4-5, minimum R. 0-5-2), while that of the rental is R. 0-15-0 (maximum Rs. 1-15-0, minimum R. 0-7-4). The collections of land and total revenue for a series of years are shown below, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue	5,14	5,20	6,72	6,42
Total revenue	8,81	10,57	10,71	11,53

Local boards and municipalities.

Local affairs outside municipal areas are entrusted to a District council and three local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903-4 was Rs. 79,000, and the expenditure on education was Rs. 22,000, on public works Rs. 20,000, and on medical relief nearly Rs. 10,000. WARDHĀ, ARVI, HINGANGHĀT, DEOLĪ, and PULGAON are municipal towns.

Police and jails.

The force under the District Superintendent of police consists of 392 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, besides 1,228 village watchmen for 906 inhabited towns and

villages. The District jail has accommodation for 81 prisoners, including 8 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 57.

[Education.] In respect of literacy the District stands seventh in the Province, 3·9 per cent. of the population (7·6 male and 0·2 females) being able to read and write. The percentage of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 12. Statistics of the number of pupils in schools are as follows: (1880–1) 3,685; (1890–1) 5,296; (1900–1) 5,878; (1903–4) 6,704, including 159 girls. The educational institutions comprise four English middle schools, eight vernacular middle schools, and 88 primary schools. There are girls' schools at Wardhā, Hinganghāt, and Arvī. The expenditure on education in 1903–4 was Rs. 36,000, of which Rs. 31,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds, and Rs. 4,700 from fees.

[Hospitals and dispensaries.] The District has 10 dispensaries, with accommodation for 85 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 102,991, of whom 448 were in-patients, and 2,372 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 14,000. A veterinary dispensary has also been opened at Wardhā town.

[Vaccination.] Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns of Wardhā, Hinganghāt, Arvī, and Deolī. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903–4 was 47 per mille of the population. A considerable degree of protection has now been attained in this respect.

[Rai Bahādur Purshotam Dās, *Settlement Report*, 1895. A District Gazetteer is under preparation.]

Wardhā Tahsīl.—Head-quarters *tahsīl* of Wardhā District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 30′ and 21° 3′ N. and 78° 15′ and 78° 56′ E., with an area of 809 square miles. The population in 1901 was 152,565, compared with 158,215 in 1891. The density, 188 persons per square mile, is above the District average. The *tahsīl* contains three towns—Wardhā (population, 9,872), the District and *tahsīl* head-quarters, Deolī (5,008), and Pulgaon (4,710)—and 314 inhabited villages. Excluding four square miles of Government forest, 86 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 629 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 2,58,000, and for cesses Rs. 25,000. The north-eastern portion of the *tahsīl* forming the Keljhar *pargana* is hilly, and the remainder is an undulating plain intersected by small streams and broken by low hills. Cotton and *jowār* are the principal crops.

Arvī Tahsīl.—Northern *tahsīl* of Wardhā District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 45′ and 21° 22′ N. and 78° 3′ and 78° 39′ E., with an area of 890 square miles. The population in 1901 was 137,737, compared with 131,174 in 1891. The density is 155 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* has two towns, ARVĪ (population, 10,676), the head-quarters, and ASHTĪ (5,237); and 299 inhabited villages. The *tahsīl* is an important cotton tract, and is known also for its fine breed of cattle. The eastern portion is hilly, while to the west a narrow strip of very fertile black soil lies along the bank of the Wardhā river. Excluding 180 square miles of Government forest, 70 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 472 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,98,000, and for cesses Rs. 19,000.

Hinganghāt Tahsīl.—Southern *tahsīl* of Wardhā District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 18′ and 20° 49′ N. and 78° 32′ and 79° 14′ E., with an area of 729 square miles. The population in 1901 was 94,801, compared with 111,465 in 1891. The density is 130 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, HINGANGHĀT (population, 12,662), the head-quarters, and 207 inhabited villages. The demand for land revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 1,86,000, and for cesses Rs. 19,000. Hinganghāt has a larger proportion of the spring crops, wheat and linseed, than the rest of the District. The local variety of cotton, called after the name of the town, was formerly well-known, but the seed has now become mixed with inferior varieties, and the quality has deteriorated. Excluding 17 square miles of Government forest, 88 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 540 square miles. The *tahsīl* consists of an undulating plain of fertile black soil.

Arvī Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name in Wardhā District, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 59′ N. and 78° 10′ E., 22 miles from Pulgaon station. Population (1901), 10,676. Arvī was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 14,200. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 27,000, derived principally from octroi and market dues. The town is a flourishing centre of the cotton trade, and contains 7 ginning factories and 3 presses, most of which have been erected within the five years ending 1903. Their aggregate capital is 6½ lakhs, and the profits for 1904 were Rs. 79,000. The water-supply is inadequate, and a water-works scheme is under con-

sideration. A weekly cattle market is held here. Arvī has an English middle school, a dispensary, a public library, and a fine *sarai* constructed at a cost of Rs. 15,000 by one of the residents. A large market to cost Rs. 40,000 is shortly to be built in the town.

Ashtī.—Town in the Arvī *tahsīl* of Wardhā District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 12′ N. and 78° 11′ E., 39 miles from Pulgaon station. Population (1901), 5,237. Ashtī was the seat of government of part of Wardhā and Berār under the Mughal empire, and two handsome mausoleums built over the graves of Afghān nobles who administered these territories during the reign of Jahāngīr are still standing. A cotton-ginning and pressing factory was erected in 1894. Ashtī possesses an English middle school, and a town fund is raised for purposes of sanitation.

Deolī.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Wardha, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 39′ N. and 78° 29′ E., 11 miles from Wardhā town and 5 miles from Degaon station. Population (1901), 5,008. Deolī was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 4,200. In 1903–4 the receipts were Rs. 6,000, derived chiefly from fees on the registration of cattle. Deolī was formerly an important cotton mart, but has been supplanted by stations on the railway, and the population is now less than in 1872. It contains a hand cotton-weaving industry, which is not prosperous, and a large weekly cattle market is held here. The town has a vernacular middle school and a dispensary.

Hinganghāt Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Wardhā District, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 34′ N. and 78° 51′ E., on the Wunnā river, and on the Wardhā-Warorā branch line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 21 miles from Wardhā town and 492 from Bombay. Population (1901), 12,662. An outbreak of plague in 1898 has not affected its prosperity. The name means the *ghāt* or crossing of the *hingan*-trees (*Balanites aegyptiaca*). Old Hinganghāt was a straggling ill-arranged town, liable to be flooded by the river Wunnā during the monsoon. The new town, a quarter of a mile distant from the old one, is laid out in two sets of three broad streets at right angles to each other, and furnished with rows of trees like boulevards. Hinganghāt was created a municipality in 1867. The receipts and expenditure during the decade ending 1900 averaged Rs. 35,000. By 1903–4 the income had largely expanded, and amounted to Rs. 70,000, octroi being the principal head of receipt. The

town is a leading centre of the cotton trade. The Hinganghāt Mill Company, established in 1881, has a capital of 3·5 lakhs and 30,888 spindles. Another mill, with nearly 15,000 spindles and 160 looms, which began work in 1900, is the sole property of a resident of Hinganghāt, who has invested 13 lakhs in it. There are also 10 cotton-ginning factories, and 4 pressing factories, containing 265 gins and 2 presses, with an aggregate capital of about 7 lakhs. The town is supplied with water from the Wunnā river. A filtration well has been sunk in the bed of the river at a distance of about two miles, from which water is pumped into an elevated reservoir and distributed to the urban area in pipes. The works were opened in 1883, the capital expenditure being 1·36 lakhs, and the annual maintenance charges Rs. 8,000. Hinganghāt has a high school and a dispensary, and a town hall has recently been built. Other large public improvements likely to be completed in the immediate future are the improvement and extension of the water-works and the construction of a market.

Pulgaon.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Wardhā, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 44′ N. and 78° 19′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 19 miles from Wardhā town and 452 from Bombay. Population (1901), 4,710. Pulgaon is quite a new town, and originally consisted of a collection of huts of the workmen who built the railway bridge over the Wardhā river close by, the name meaning 'bridge village.' It was constituted a municipality in 1901. The receipts and expenditure in 1903–4 were Rs. 11,000 and Rs. 7,000 respectively. The income is derived principally from road tolls and rents of land. Pulgaon is an important centre of the cotton trade, receiving the produce of nearly the whole of the Arvī *tahsīl*. The Pulgaon Spinning Mills were opened in 1892 with a capital of 5 lakhs, and have nearly 15,000 spindles. The out-turn of yarn in 1904 was 21,300 cwt., valued at more than 10 lakhs. A weaving department containing 165 looms was added in 1902 at an additional cost of 3¾ lakhs. There are also 5 cotton-ginning factories and 3 pressing factories, with a total capital of 4½ lakhs, and containing 146 gins and 3 presses. Pulgaon has a primary school and a dispensary.

Wardhā Town.—Head-quarters of the District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 45′ N. and 78° 37′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 471 miles from Bombay and 49 from Nāgpur. It is also the junction for the branch line to Warorā in Chānda District. Population

(1901), 9,872. Since 1872 the population has nearly trebled. The present town was founded in 1866, the site having been selected for the head-quarters of a new District, and has been carefully laid out with wide and regular streets so as to permit of expansion. It was created a municipality in 1874. The municipal receipts and expenditure during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 33,000 and Rs. 34,000, respectively. In 1903-4 the income had risen to Rs. 45,000, the chief sources being road tolls, a water rate, and miscellaneous receipts. Wardhā is an important cotton mart, and contains 7 ginning and 4 pressing factories, with 164 gins and 4 presses, and a total capital of about 5 lakhs. There are four printing presses, three of which use English and Marāthī type and one Marāthī only. The water-supply is obtained from the Dhām river at a distance of 5 miles. A dam has been constructed across the river at Paunār, giving a level sheet of water for about 6 furlongs. The water is led through artificial filter-beds of sand to an underground reservoir, and thence pumped into an elevated service-tank from which it is carried to the town. The water-works were completed in 1898 at a cost of 2·25 lakhs. A weekly cattle market is held here. Wardhā has an English middle school and girls' school, three dispensaries, including mission and police hospitals, and a veterinary dispensary. Further public improvements to be carried out in the immediate future are the construction of a high school and hostel at an expenditure of Rs. 25,000, and a complete drainage scheme to cost Rs. 35,000.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Nāgpur District.—District of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 35′ and 21° 44′ N., and 78° 15′ and 79° 40′ E., in the plain to which it gives its name at the southern base of the Sātpurā Hills, with an area of 3,840 square miles. It is bounded on the north by Chhindwāra and Seonī; on the east by Bhandāra; on the south and west by Chānda and Wardhā; and along a small strip on the north-west by the Amraotī District of Berār. The greater part of the District is an undulating plain, but it is traversed by low hill ranges. In the north a strip of the Sātpurā Hills is included within its limits, narrow on the west but widening to a breadth of 12 miles or more towards the east. Immediately south of them lies the western extremity of the Ambāgarh hills, on which stand the well-known temples of Rāmtek. On the western border another low range of hills runs down the length of the District, and, after a break formed by the valley of the Wunnā river, continues to the south-east past Umrer,

cutting off on its southern side the valley of the Nand. A third small range called the Pilkāpār hills crosses the Kātol *tahsīl* from north to south. There are also a few detached hills, notably that of SĪTĀBALDĪ in Nāgpur city, which is visible for a long distance from the country round. The hills attain no great altitude, the highest peaks not exceeding 2,000 feet, but vary greatly in appearance, being in places extremely picturesque and clothed with forest, while elsewhere they are covered by loose stones and brushwood, or are wholly bare and arid. The Wardhā and Waingangā rivers flow along part of the western and eastern borders respectively, and the drainage of the District is divided between them. The waters of about a third of its area on the west are carried to the Wardhā by the Jām, the Wunnā, and other minor streams. The centre is drained by the Pench and Kanhān, which, flowing south through the Sātpurā Hills, unite just above Kamptee, where they are also joined by the Kolār; from here the Kanhān carries their joint waters along the northern boundary of the Umrer *tahsīl* to meet the Waingangā on the Bhandāra border. To the east a few small streams flow direct to the Waingangā. The richest part of the District is the western half of the Kātol *tahsīl* cut off by the small ranges described above. It possesses a soil profusely fertile, and teems with the richest garden cultivation. Beyond the Pilkāpār hills the plain country extends to the eastern border. Its surface is scarcely ever level, but it is closely cultivated, abounds in mango-groves and trees of all sorts, and towards the east is studded with small tanks, which form a feature in the landscape. The elevation of the plain country is from 900 to 1,000 feet above sea-level.

Geology. The primary formation of the rocks is sandstone, associated with shale and limestone. The sandstone is now covered by trap on the west, and broken up by granite on the east, leaving a small diagonal strip running through the centre of the District and expanding on the north-west and south-east. The juxtaposition of trap, sandstone, and granite rocks in this neighbourhood invests the geology of Nāgpur with special interest.

Botany. The forests are mainly situated in a large block on the Sātpurā Hills to the north-east, while isolated patches are dotted on the hills extending along the south-western border. The forest growth varies with the nature of the soil, *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *achār* (*Buchanania latifolia*), and *tendū* (*Diospyros tomentosa*) being characteristic on the heavy soils,

teak on good well-drained slopes, *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*) on the steep hill-sides and ridges, and satin-wood on the sandy levels. In the open country mango, *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*), tamarind, and bastard date-palms are common.

Fauna.

There is nothing noteworthy about the wild animals of the District, and from the sportsman's point of view it is one of the poorest in the Province. Wild hog abound all over the country, finding shelter in the large grass reserves or groves of date-palm. Partridge, quail, and sand-grouse are fairly common; bustard are frequently seen in the south, and florican occasionally. Snipe and duck are obtained in the cold season in a few localities.

Climate and temperature.

Nāgpur has the reputation of being one of the hottest places in India during the summer months. In May the temperature rises to 116°, while it falls on clear nights as low as 70°. During the rains the highest day temperature seldom exceeds 95°, and the lowest at night is about 70°. In the cold season the highest temperature is between 80° and 90°, and the lowest about 50°. Except for three months from April to June, when the heat is intense, and in September, when the atmosphere is steamy and the moist heat very trying, the climate of Nāgpur is not unpleasant.

Rainfall.

The annual rainfall averages 46 inches, but less is received in the west than in the east of the District. Complete failure of the rainfall has in the past been very rare, but its distribution is capricious, especially towards the end of the monsoon, when the fate of the harvest is in the balance.

History.

There is no historical record of Nāgpur prior to the commencement of the eighteenth century, when it formed part of the Gond kingdom of Deogarh, in Chhindwāra. Bakht Buland, the reigning prince of Deogarh, proceeded to Delhi, and, appreciating the advantages of the civilization which he there witnessed, determined to set about the development of his own territories. To this end he invited Hindu artificers and husbandmen to settle in the plain country, and founded the city of Nāgpur. His successor, Chānd Sultān, continued the work of civilization, and removed his capital to Nāgpur. On Chānd Sultān's death in 1739 there were disputes as to the succession, and his widow invoked the aid of Raghujī Bhonsla, who was governing Berār on behalf of the Peshwā. The Bhonsla family were originally headmen of Deorā, a village in the Sātāra District of Bombay, from which place their present representative derives his title of Rājā. Raghujī's grandfather and his two brothers had fought in the armies of Sivajī, and

to the most distinguished of them was entrusted a high military command and the collection of *chauth* in Berār. Raghujī, on being called in by the contending Gond factions, replaced the two sons of Chānd Sultān on the throne from which they had been ousted by a usurper, and retired to Berār with a suitable reward for his assistance. Dissensions, however, broke out between the brothers, and in 1743 Raghujī again intervened at the request of the elder brother, and drove out his rival. But he had not the heart to give back a second time the country he held within his grasp. Burhān Shāh, the Gond Rājā, though allowed to retain the outward insignia of royalty, became practically a state pensioner, and all real power passed to the Marāthās. Bold and decisive in action, Raghujī was the type of a Marāthā leader; he saw in the troubles of other states an opening for his own ambition, and did not even require a pretext for plunder and invasion. Twice his armies invaded Bengal, and he obtained the cession of Cuttack. Chānda, Chhattīsgarh, and Sambalpur were added to his dominions between 1745 and 1755, the year of his death. His successor Jānojī took part in the wars between the Peshwā and Nizām, and after he had in turn betrayed both of them, they united against him, and sacked and burnt Nāgpur in 1765. On Jānojī's death his brothers fought for the succession, until one shot the other on the battle-field of Pānchgaon, six miles south of Nāgpur, and succeeded to the regency on behalf of his infant son Raghujī II, who was Jānojī's adopted heir. In 1785 Mandlā and the upper Narbadā valley were added to the Nāgpur dominions by treaty with the Peshwā. Mudhojī, the regent, had courted the favour of the British, and this policy was continued for some time by his son Raghujī II, who acquired Hoshangābād and the lower Narbadā valley. But in 1803 he united with Sindhia against the British Government. The two chiefs were decisively defeated at Assaye and Argaon, and by the Treaty of Deogaon of that year Raghujī ceded to the British Cuttack, Southern Berār, and Sambalpur, the last of which was, however, relinquished in 1806.

To the close of the eighteenth century the Marāthā administration had been on the whole good, and the country had prospered. The first four of the Bhonslas were military chiefs with the habits of rough soldiers, connected by blood and by constant familiar intercourse with all their principal officers. Descended from the class of cultivators, they ever favoured and fostered that order. They were rapacious, but seldom

cruel to the lower classes. Up to 1792 their territories were rarely the theatre of hostilities, and the area of cultivation and revenue continued to increase under a fairly equitable and extremely primitive system of government. After the Treaty of Deogaon, however, all this was changed. Raghujī had been deprived of a third of his territories, and he attempted to make up the loss of revenue from the remainder. The villages were mercilessly rack-rented, and many new taxes imposed. The pay of the troops was in arrears, and they maintained themselves by plundering the cultivators, while at the same time commenced the raids of the Pindāris, who became so bold that in 1811 they advanced to Nāgpur and burnt the suburbs. It was at this time that most of the numerous village forts were built, to which on the approach of these marauders the peasant retired and fought for bare life, all he possessed outside the walls being already lost to him.

On the death of Raghujī II in 1816, his son, an imbecile, was soon supplanted and murdered by the famous Mudhojī or Appa Sāhib. A treaty of alliance providing for the maintenance of a subsidiary force by the British was signed in this year, a Resident having been appointed to the Nāgpur court since 1799. In 1817, on the outbreak of war between the British and the Peshwā, Appa Sāhib threw off his cloak of friendship, and accepted an embassy and title from the Peshwā. His troops attacked the British, and were defeated in the brilliant action at SĪTĀBALDĪ, and a second time round Nāgpur. As a result of these battles, the remaining portion of Berār and the territories in the Narbadā valley were ceded to the British. Appa Sāhib was reinstated on the throne, but shortly afterwards was discovered to be again intriguing, and was deposed and forwarded to Allahābād in custody. On the way, however, he corrupted his guards, and escaped, first to the Mahādeo Hills and subsequently to the Punjab. A grandchild of Raghujī II was then placed on the throne, and the territories were administered by the Resident from 1818 to 1830, in which year the young ruler known as Raghujī III was allowed to assume the actual government. He died without heirs in 1853, and his territories were then declared to have lapsed. Nāgpur was administered by a Commissioner until the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861. During the Mutiny a scheme for a rising was formed by a regiment of irregular cavalry in conjunction with the disaffected Muhammadans of

the city, but was frustrated by the prompt action of the civil authorities, supported by Madras troops from Kamptee. Some of the native officers and two of the leading Muhammadans of the city were hanged from the ramparts of the fort, and the disturbances ended. The aged princess Bakā Bai, widow of Raghujī II, used all her influence in support of the British, and largely contributed by her example to keep the Marāthā districts loyal.

Archaeology.

In several localities in the District are found circles of rough stones, occasionally extending over considerable areas. Beneath some of them fragments of pottery, flint arrow-heads, and iron-ware, evidently of great antiquity, have been discovered. These were constructed by an unknown race, but are ascribed by the people to the pastoral Gaolīs, and are said to be their encampments or burial-places. The remains of the fort of Pārseonī, constructed of unhewn masses of rock, which are also ascribed to the Gaolīs, certainly date from a very early period. The buildings at RĀMTEK, KĀTOL, KELOD, and SAONER are separately described. Other remains which may be mentioned are the old Gond fort of Bhiugarh on the Pench river, and the temples of Adāsa and Bhugaon, and of Jākhāpur on the Saoner road.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 697,356; (1891) 757,863; (1901) 751,844. Between 1881 and 1891 the increase was nearly 9 per cent., the District having been generally prosperous. During the last decade the population has been almost stationary. The number of deaths exceeded that of births in the years 1894 to 1897 inclusive, and also in 1900. There was a considerable loss of population in the wheat-growing tracts of Nāgpur and Umrer, while the towns and the cotton lands of Kātol showed an increase. There are twelve towns — NĀGPUR, the District head-quarters, KAMPTEE, UMRER, RĀMTEK, NARKHER, KHĀPA, KĀTOL, SAONER, KALMESHWAR, MOHPĀ, KELOD, and MOWĀR—and 1,681 inhabited villages. The urban population amounts to 32 per cent. of the total, which is the highest proportion in the Province. Some of the towns are almost solely agricultural, and these as a rule are now declining in importance. But others which are favourably situated for trade, or for the establishment of cotton factories, are growing rapidly. The table on the next page gives the principal statistics of population in 1901 :—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of		Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
		Towns.	Villages.				
Nāgpur . .	871	4	417	296,117	340	+ 0.6	24,855
Rāmtek . .	1,129	2	451	156,663	139	− 0.3	3,820
Umrer . .	1,040	1	457	136,476	131	− 8.6	3,610
Kātol . .	800	5	356	162,581	200	+ 3.5	4,718
District total	3,840	12	1,681	751,844	193	− 0.8	37,003

About 88 per cent. of the population are Hindus, nearly 6 per cent. Muhammadans, and 5 per cent. Animists. There are 2,675 Jains and 481 Pārsīs. Three-fourths of the Muhammadans live in towns. Many of them come from Hyderābād and the Deccan, and they are the most turbulent class of the population. About 77 per cent. of the population speak Marāthī, 9 per cent. Hindī, 5½ per cent. Gondī, 5 per cent. Urdū, and 1 per cent. Telugu. It is curious that nearly all the Gonds in the District were returned at the Census as retaining their own vernacular.

Their castes and occupations.

The principal landholding castes are Brāhmans (23,000), Kunbīs (152,000), and Marāthās (11,000). The Marāthā Brāhmans naturally form the large majority of this caste, and, besides being the most extensive proprietors, are engaged in money-lending, trade, and the legal profession, and almost monopolize the better class of appointments in Government service. The Kunbīs are the great cultivating class. They are plodding and patient, with a strong affection for their land, but wanting in energy as compared with the castes of the Northern Districts. The majority of the villages owned by Marāthās are included in the estates of the Bhonsla family and their relatives. A considerable proportion of the Government political pensioners are Marāthās. Many of them also hold villages or plots; but as a rule they are extravagant in their living, and several of the old Marāthā nobility have fallen in the world. The native army does not attract them, and but few are sufficiently well educated for the more dignified posts in the civil employ of Government. Raghvīs (12,000), Lodhīs (8,000), and Kirārs (4,000), representing the immigrants from Hindustān, are exceptionally good cultivators. The Kirārs, however, are much given to display and incur extravagant expenditure on their dwelling-houses and jewellery, while the Lodhīs are divided by constant family feuds and love of faction. There are nearly 46,000 Gonds, constituting 6 per

cent. of the population. They have generally attained to some degree of civilization, and grow rice instead of the light millets which suffice for the needs of their fellow tribesmen on the Sātpurās. The menial caste of Mahārs form a sixth of the whole population, the great majority being cultivators and labourers. The rural Mahār is still considered as impure, and is not allowed to drink from the village well, nor may his children sit at school with those of the Hindu castes. But there are traces of the decay of this tendency, as many Mahārs have become wealthy and risen in the world. About 58 per cent. of the population were returned as dependent on agriculture in 1901.

Christian missions.

Christians number 6,163, of whom 2,870 are Europeans and Eurasians, and 3,293 natives. Of the natives the majority are Roman Catholics, belonging to the French Mission at Nāgpur. There are also a number of Presbyterians, the converts of the Scottish Free Church Mission. Nāgpur is the head-quarters of a Roman Catholic diocese, which supports high and middle schools for European and Eurasian children and natives, and orphanages for boys and girls, the clergy being assisted by French nuns of the Order of St. Joseph who live at Nāgpur and Kamptee. A mission of the Free Church of Scotland supports a number of educational and other institutions at Nāgpur and in the interior of the District. Among these may be mentioned the Hislop aided college, numerous schools for low-caste children, an orphanage and boarding-school for Christian girls, and the Mure Memorial Hospital for women. A small mission of the Church of England is also located at Nāgpur, and one of the Methodist Episcopal Church at Kamptee.

General agricultural conditions.

The prevailing soil is that known as black cotton. It seldom attains to a depth of 12 feet, and is superimposed on a band of conglomerate and brown clay. Rich black clay is found only in very small quantities, and the commonest soil is a dark loam mixed with limestone pebbles and of considerable fertility. The latter covers 65 per cent. of the cultivated area; and of the remainder 27 per cent. consists of an inferior variety of the same soil, very shallow and mixed with gravel or sand, and occurring principally in the hilly country. Little really poor land is thus under cultivation.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

About 383 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue, and 2,500 acres of Government land have been settled on the *ryotwāri* system. The balance of the District area is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The following

table shows the principal statistics of cultivation in 1903-4, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Nāgpur	871	578	3	149	42
Rāmtek	1,129	544	5	166	343
Umrer	1,040	564	12	311	74
Kātol	800	540	4	114	56
Total	3,840	2,226	24	740	515

Jowār and cotton are the principal crops, covering (either alone or mixed with the pulse *arhar*) 661 and 633 square miles respectively. Of other crops wheat occupies 353 square miles, *til* 84 square miles, linseed 132 square miles, and gram 31 square miles. Cotton and *jowār* are grown principally in the west and centre of the District, rice in the east, where the rainfall is heavier, and wheat, linseed, and gram in the centre and south. The main feature of recent years is the increase in the area under autumn crops, cotton and *jowār*, which are frequently grown in rotation. The acreage of cotton alone and cotton with *arhar* has more than doubled since settlement, and that of *jowār* alone and *jowār* with *arhar* has risen by 23 per cent. This change is to be attributed mainly to the high prices prevailing for cotton, and partly also to the succession of unfavourable spring harvests which have lately been experienced. Wheat shows a loss of 146 square miles and linseed of 106 during the same period. There are two principal varieties of cotton, of which that with a very short staple but yielding a larger supply of lint is generally preferred. Cotton-seed is now a valuable commercial product. The recent years of short rainfall have had a prejudicial effect on the rice crop, the area under which is only 22 square miles as against 50 at settlement. Most of the rice grown is transplanted. A number of profitable vegetable and fruit crops are also grown, the most important of which are oranges, which covered 1,000 acres in 1903-4; chillies, nearly 6,000 acres; castor, nearly 4,000 acres; tobacco, 450 acres; and turmeric, 170 acres. About 17,000 acres were under fodder-grass in the same year. The leaf of the betel-vine gardens of Rāmtek has a special reputation, and it is also cultivated at Pārseonī and Mansar, about 130 acres being occupied altogether. *Kapūri pān* (= betel-leaf) is grown for local consumption and *bengalā pān* for export.

Improvements in

The occupied area increased by 12 per cent. during the currency of the thirty years' settlement (1863-4), and has

agricultural practice. further increased by 3 per cent. since the last settlement (1893-5). The scope for yet more extension is very limited. The area of the valuable cotton crop increases annually, and more care is devoted to its cultivation than formerly. Cotton fields are manured whenever a supply is available, and the practice of pitting manure is growing in favour. In recent years the embankment of fields with low stone walls to protect them from erosion has received a great impetus in the Kātol *tahsīl*. During the ten years ending 1904, Rs. 79,000 was advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act for the construction of wells, tanks, and field embankments, and 1·77 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

Owing to the scarcity of good grazing grounds the majority of the agricultural cattle are imported, only 25 per cent. being bred locally. The hilly country in the north of the Rāmtek *tahsīl* is the principal breeding ground. Cattle are imported from Berār, Chhindwāra, and Chānda. Buffaloes are kept for the manufacture of *ghī*. Goats are largely bred and sold for food, while the flocks are also hired for their manure. Cattle races take place annually at Silli in Umrer, at Irsī in Rāmtek, and at Sakardarā near Nāgpur, these last being held by the Bhonsla family. Large weekly cattle markets are held at Sonegaon, Kodāmendhī, Bhiwāpur, and Mohpā.

Irrigation.

Only 24 square miles are irrigated, most of which is rice and the remainder vegetable and garden crops. Wheat occasionally gets a supply of water, if the cultivator has a well in his field. The District has 995 irrigation tanks and 4,302 wells. A project for the construction of a large reservoir at Rāmtek, to irrigate 40,000 acres and protect a further 30,000 acres, at an estimated cost of 16 lakhs, has been sanctioned.

Forests.

The Government forests extend over 515 square miles, of which nearly 350 are situated on the foot-hills of the Sātpurās on both sides of the Pench river, and 170 consist of small blocks lying parallel to the Wardhā boundary, and extending from the west of Kātol to the south and east of Umrer. Small teak is scattered through the first tract, mixed with bamboos on the extreme north, but in no well-defined belts. Satin-wood, often nearly pure, is found on the sandy levels. The second tract contains small but good teak in its central blocks from Kātol to the railway, but poor mixed forests to the north, and chiefly scrub to the south in the Umrer *tahsīl*. Owing to the large local demand, the forests yield a substantial revenue. This amounted in 1903-4 to Rs. 63,000, of which Rs. 10,000

was realized from sales of timber, Rs. 16,000 from firewood, and Rs. 26,000 from grazing.

Deposits of manganese occur in several localities, principally in the Rāmtek *tahsīl*. A number of separate mining and prospecting leases have been granted, and a light tramway has been laid by one firm from Thārsa station to Wāregaon and Mandrī, a distance of about 15 miles. The total output of manganese in 1904 was 66,000 tons. Mines are being worked at Mansar, Kandrī, Satak, Lohdongrī, Wāregaon, Kachurwāhi, Mandrī, Pāli, and other villages. A quarry of white sandstone is worked at Silewāra on the Kanhān river, from which long thin slabs well suited for building are obtained. Minerals.

The weaving of cotton cloths with silk borders is the staple hand industry, the principal centres being Nāgpur and Umrer. Gold and silver thread obtained from Burhānpur are also woven into the borders. The silk is obtained from Bengal and from China through Bombay, spun into thin thread, and is made up into different thicknesses locally. *Tasar* silk cocoons are received from Chhattīsgarh. A single cloth of the finest quality may cost as much as Rs. 150, but loin-cloths worth from Rs. 8 to Rs. 25 a pair, and *sārīs* from Rs. 3 to Rs. 25 each, are most in demand. White loin-cloths with red borders are woven at Umrer, the thread being dyed with lac, and coloured *sārīs* are made at Nāgpur. Cheap cotton cloth is produced by Momins or Muhammadan weavers at Kamptee and by Koshtīs at Khāpa. Coarse cloth is also woven by the village Mahārs, hand-spun thread being still used for the warp, on account of its superior strength, and is dyed and made up into carpets and mattresses at Saoner and Patansaongī. Sawargaon, Mowār, and Narkher also have dyeing industries. In 1901 nearly 13,000 persons were returned as supported by the silk industry, 39,000 by cotton hand-weaving, and 2,500 by dyeing. Brass-working is carried on at Nāgpur and Kelod, and iron betel-nut cutters and penknives are made at Nāgpur. Arts and manufactures.

Nāgpur city has two cotton-spinning and weaving mills—the Empress Mills, opened in 1877, and the Swadeshī Spinning and Weaving Company which started work in 1892. Their aggregate capital is 62 lakhs. Nāgpur also contains 12 ginning and 11 pressing factories, Kamptee 3 and 2, and Saoner 3 and 2, while one or more are situated in several of the towns and larger villages of the cotton tract. The majority of these factories have been opened within the last five years. They

contain altogether 673 gins and 83 cotton presses, and have an aggregate capital of 29 lakhs approximately. Nearly 11,000 persons were shown as supported by employment in factories in 1901, and the numbers must have increased considerably since then. The ginning and pressing factories, however, work only for four or five months in the year. The capitalists owning them are principally Mārwāri Baniās and Marāthā Brāhmans, and in a smaller degree Muhammadan Bohrās, Pārsīs, and Europeans.

Commerce. Raw cotton and cotton-seed, linseed, *til*, and wheat are the staple exports of agricultural produce. Oranges are largely exported, and an improved variety of wild plum (*Zizyphus Jujuba*), which is obtained by grafting. The annual exports of oranges are valued at a lakh of rupees. Betel-leaf is sent to Northern India. Yarn and cotton cloth are sent all over India and to China, Japan, and Burma by the Empress Mills, while the Swadeshī Mills find their best market in Chhattīsgarh. Hand-woven silk-bordered cloths to the value of about 5 lakhs annually are exported from Nāgpur and Umrer to Bombay, Berār, and Hyderābād, the principal demand for them being from Marāthā Brāhmans. Manganese ore is now a staple export. Many articles of produce are also received at Nāgpur from other Districts and re-exported. Among these may be mentioned rice from Bhandāra and Chhattīsgarh, timber and bamboos from Chānda, Bhandāra, and Seonī, and bamboo matting from Chānda. Cotton and grain are also received from the surrounding Districts off the line of railway. Sea-salt from Bombay is commonly used, and a certain amount is also received from the Salt Hills of the Punjab. Mauritius sugar is imported, and sometimes mixed with the juice of sugar-cane to give it the appearance of Indian sugar, which is more expensive by one pound in the rupee. *Gur*, or refined sugar, comes from the United Provinces, and also from Bārsi and Sholāpur, in Bombay. Rice is imported from Chhattīsgarh and Bengal, and a certain amount of wheat from Chhindwāra is consumed locally, as it is cheaper than Nāgpur wheat. The finer kinds of English cotton cloth come from Calcutta, and the coarser ones from Bombay. Kerosene oil is bought in Bombay or Calcutta according as the rate is cheaper. The use of tea is rapidly increasing all over the District. Soda-water is largely consumed, about ten factories having been established at Nāgpur. Woollen and iron goods come from England. A European firm practically monopolizes the export trade in grain, and shares the cotton trade with Mārwāri Baniās and Marāthā

Brāhmans. Lād Baniās export hand-woven cloth, and Muhammadans and Mārwāris manage the timber trade. Bohrās import and retail stationery and hardware, and Cutchī Muhammadans deal in groceries, cloth, salt, and kerosene oil. Kamptee has the largest weekly market, and the Sunday and Wednesday bazars at Nāgpur are also important. The other leading markets, including those for cattle which have already been mentioned, are at Gaorī and Kelod for grain and timber, and Mowār for grain. A large fair is held at Rāmtek in November, at which general merchandise is sold, and small religious fairs take place at Ambhorā, Kudhāri, Adāsa, and Dhāpewāra.

Railways and roads. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Bombay has a length of 27 miles in the District, with 3 stations and its terminus at Nāgpur city. From here the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway runs east to Calcutta, with 5 stations and 34 miles within the limits of the District. The most important trade routes are the roads leading north-west from Nāgpur city to Chhindwāra and Kātol, the eastern road to Bhandāra through Kūhi, and the north-eastern road to Seonī through Kamptee. Next to these come the southern roads through Mūl to Umrer, and to Chānda through Borī, Jām, and Warorā. There is some local traffic along the road to Amraotī through Bāzārgaon. The District has 231 miles of metalled and 74 miles of unmetalled roads, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 99,000. The Public Works department has charge of 253 miles of road, and the District council of 52 miles. There are avenues of trees on 185 miles, Nāgpur being better provided for in this respect than almost any other District in the Province. Considering its advanced state of development, the District is not very well supplied with railways, and there appears to be some scope for the construction of feeder lines to serve the more populous outlying tracts.

Famine. Nāgpur District is recorded to have suffered from failures of crops in 1819, 1825–6, and 1832–3. There was only slight distress in 1869. In 1896–7 the District was not severely affected, as the *jowār*, cotton, *til*, and wheat crops gave a fair out-turn. Numbers of starving wanderers from other Districts, however, flocked into Nāgpur city. Relief measures lasted for a year, the highest number in receipt of assistance being 18,000 in May, 1897, and the total expenditure was 5 lakhs. In 1899-1900 the monsoon failed completely, and only a third of a normal harvest was obtained. Relief measures lasted from September, 1899, to November, 1900, 108,000

persons, or 19 per cent. of the population, being in receipt of assistance in August, 1900. The total expenditure was 19·5 lakhs. The work done consisted principally of breaking up metal, but some tanks and wells were constructed, and the embankment of the reservoir at Ambājheri was raised.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner has a staff of four Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into four *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. Forests are in charge of an officer of the Imperial service; and the Executive Engineer of the Nāgpur division, including Nāgpur and Wardhā Districts, is stationed at Nāgpur city.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and five Subordinate Judges, two Munsifs at Rāmtek and Kātol, and one at each of the other *tahsīls*, and a Small Cause Court Judge for Nāgpur city. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nāgpur Division has jurisdiction in the District. Kamptee has a Cantonment Magistrate, invested with the powers of a Small Cause Court Judge.

Land revenue administration.

Under the Marāthā administration the revenue was fixed annually. The Marāthās apparently retained as a standard the demand which they found existing when they received the country from the Gonds. This was called the *ain jamabandi*, and at the commencement of every year an amount varying partly with the character of the previous season, and partly with the financial necessities of the central Government, was fixed as the revenue demand. Increases of revenue were, however, expressed usually as percentages on the *ain jamabandi*. The local officers or *kamaishdārs*, on receiving the announcement of the revenue assessed on their charge, called the *pātels* or headmen of villages together and distributed it over the individual villages according to their capacity. The *pātel* then distributed the revenue over the fields of the village, most of which had a fixed proportionate value which determined their share of the revenue. Neither headmen nor tenants had any proprietary rights, but they were not as a rule liable to ejectment so long as they paid the revenue. Under the earlier Marāthā rulers the assessment was fairly equitable; but after the Treaty of Deogaon the District was severely rackrented, and villages were let indiscriminately to the highest bidder, while no portion of the rental was left to the *pātels*. At the commencement of the protectorate after the deposition of Appa Sāhib, there were more than 400 villages for which no headman could be found to accept a lease on the revenue

demanded. The revenue was at once reduced by 20 per cent. Cultivation expanded during the management by the British, and some increase was obtained, the assessment being made for periods of from three to five years. During the subsequent period of Marāthā government the British system was more or less adhered to, but there was some decline in the revenue due to lax administration. Many of the cultivating headmen were also superseded by court favourites, who were usually Marāthā Brāhmans. The demand existing immediately prior to the first long-term settlement was 8·77 lakhs. The District was surveyed and settled in 1862–4 for a period of thirty years, the demand being raised to 8·78 lakhs. On this occasion proprietary rights were conferred on the village headmen. During the currency of the thirty years' settlement, which was effected a few years before the opening of the railway to Bombay, the condition of the agricultural classes was extremely prosperous. The area occupied for cultivation increased by 12 per cent., and the prices of the staple food-grains by 140 per cent., while the rental received by the landowners rose by 20 per cent. On the expiry of this settlement, a fresh assessment was made between 1893 and 1895. The revenue demand was raised to 10·57 lakhs, or by 18 per cent. on that existing before revision, Rs. 75,000 of the revenue being 'assigned.' The experience of a number of bad seasons following on the introduction of the new assessment, during which the revenue was collected without difficulty, has sufficiently demonstrated its moderation. The average incidence of revenue per cultivated acre is R. 0–12–8 (maximum Rs. 1–4–11, minimum R. 0–6–0), while that of the rental is Rs. 1–0–3 (maximum Rs. 1–13–10, minimum R. 0–9–1). The new settlement is for a period varying from eighteen to twenty years in different tracts. The collections of land and total revenue in recent years are shown below, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880–1.	1890–1.	1900–1.	1903–4.
Land revenue . .	8,27	8,56	10,62	9,98
Total revenue . .	15,78	18,40	18,96	21,39

Local boards and municipalities.

The management of local affairs outside municipal areas is entrusted to a District council and four local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903–4 was Rs. 1,05,000, while the expenditure on public works was Rs. 34,000, on education Rs. 27,000,

and on medical relief Rs. 6,000. NĀGPUR, RĀMTEK, KHĀPA, KALMESHWAR, UMRER, MOWĀR, and SAONER are municipal towns.

Police and jails.

The police force consists of 1,006 officers and men, with a special reserve of 45, under a District Superintendent, who is usually aided by an Assistant Superintendent. There are 2,130 village watchmen for 1,693 inhabited towns and villages. Nāgpur city has a Central jail, with accommodation for 1,322 prisoners, including 90 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 710. Printing and binding, woodwork, including Burmese carving, cane-work, and cloth-weaving, are the principal industries carried on in the jail.

Education.

In respect of education the District stands third in the Province, nearly 5 per cent. of the population (9·2 males and 0·7 females) being able to read and write. The percentage of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 14. Statistics of the number of pupils are as follows: (1880–1) 10,696; (1890–1) 12,394; (1900–1) 14,991; (1903–4) 14,141, including 1,135 girls. The educational institutions comprise two Arts colleges, both at Nāgpur city, with 170 students, one of these, the Morris College, also containing Law classes with 42 students; 5 high schools, 16 English middle schools, 17 vernacular middle schools, and 147 primary schools. The District also contains two training schools and four other special schools. The expenditure on education in 1903–4 was 1·74 lakhs, of which 1 lakh was derived from Provincial and Local funds, and Rs. 30,000 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries.

The District has 17 dispensaries, with accommodation for 201 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 270,025, of whom 1,905 were in-patients, and 6,560 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 40,000. Nāgpur city also contains a lunatic asylum with 142 inmates, a leper asylum with 30 inmates, and a veterinary dispensary.

Vaccination.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns of Nāgpur, Umrer, and Rāmtek. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903–4 was 33 per 1,000 of the District population.

[R. H. Craddock, *Settlement Report*, 1899. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Nāgpur Tahsīl.—Central *tahsīl* of the District of the same name, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 46′ and 21° 23′ N. and 78° 44′ and 79° 19′ E., with an area of 871 square miles. The population in 1901 was 296,117, compared with 294,262 in 1891. The general density is 340 persons per square mile,

and the rural density 136. The *tahsīl* contains four towns—NĀGPUR (population, 127,734), the head-quarters of the *tahsīl*, District, and Province, KAMPTEE (38,888), KALMESHWAR (5,340), and SAONER (5,281)—and 417 inhabited villages. Excluding 42 square miles of Government forest, 80 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 578 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 2,76,000, and for cesses Rs. 26,000. The *tahsīl* comprises the fertile plains of Kalmeshwar and Nāgpur, the plateau of Kaurās, a continuation of the Kātol uplands, and the undulating Wunnā valley. Cotton and *jowār* are the principal crops, but there is a considerable area under wheat in the Kalmeshwar and Nāgpur plains.

Rāmtek Tahsīl.—Northern *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 5′ and 21° 44′ N. and 78° 55′ and 79° 35′ E., with an area of 1,129 square miles. The population in 1901 was 156,663, compared with 157,150 in 1891. The density is 139 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains two towns, RĀMTEK (population, 8,732), the head-quarters, and KHĀPA (7,615); and 451 inhabited villages. Excluding 343 square miles of Government forest, 77 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 544 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 2,27,000, and for cesses Rs. 23,000. The *tahsīl* contains a belt of hill and jungle at the foot of the Sātpurā range to the north, and in the south lie two fertile plains producing wheat and cotton respectively, which are divided by the Pench river.

Umrer Tahsīl.—Southern *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 35′ and 21° 11′ N. and 78° 56′ and 79° 40′ E., with an area of 1,040 square miles. The population in 1901 was 136,476, compared with 149,350 in 1891. The density is 131 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, UMRER (population, 15,943), the head-quarters, and 457 inhabited villages. Excluding 74 square miles of Government forest, 71 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 564 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 2,41,000, and for cesses Rs. 22,000. The *tahsīl* contains a large area of wheat-growing land broken by low ranges of isolated hills. It has a heavier rainfall than Nāgpur, and rice is grown towards the eastern border.

Kātol Tahsīl.—Western *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 2′ and 21° 31′ N. and 78° 15′ and

78° 59′ E., with an area of 800 square miles. The population in 1901 was 162,588, compared with 157,100 in 1891. The density is 200 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains five towns—KĀTOL (population, 7,313), the head-quarters, NARKHER (7,726), KELOD (5141), MOHPĀ (5,336), and MOWĀR (4,799)—and 356 inhabited villages. Excluding 56 square miles of Government forest, 77 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 540 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 2,57,000, and for cesses Rs. 22,000. The *tahsīl* contains tracts of very fertile land in the valleys of the Wardhā and Jām rivers, and some hilly and stony country to the south. It is one of the great cotton-growing areas of the Province.

Kalmeshwar.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Nāgpur, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 14′ N. and 78° 56′ E., 13 miles west of Nāgpur city by road. Kalmeshwar is supposed to have been founded by nomad Ahīrs or herdsmen, and the name is derived from that of their god Kalma. Population (1901), 5,340. The town stands on black soil, lying low, with bad natural drainage. On a small eminence in its centre is an old fortress, said to have been built by a Hindu family from Delhi in the time of Bakht Buland. Kalmeshwar was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 4,400. In 1903–4 the receipts were Rs. 5,000, mainly derived from a house tax and market dues. A weekly cattle market is held, and there is some trade in grain and oilseeds. Cotton cloth is woven by hand. There is an English middle school.

Kamptee (*Kāmpti*).—Town with cantonment in Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 13′ N. and 79° 12′ E., on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 10 miles from Nāgpur city and 529 from Bombay. It stands on the right bank of the river Kanhān, and the cantonment extends in a long narrow line beside the river, with the native town to the south-east. The population at the four enumerations was as follows: (1872) 48,831; (1881) 50,987; (1891) 53,159; (1901) 38,888. The population in 1901 included 26,379 Hindus, 9,852 Muhammadans, and 1,851 Christians, of whom 1,036 were Europeans and Eurasians. Kamptee is the fourth town in the Province in respect of population. The ordinary garrison consists of a battalion of British infantry, one of native infantry, and a field battery. Kamptee was until recently the head-quarters of the general commanding the Nāgpur district;

but this appointment has now been abolished, and the garrison is at present commanded from Ahmadnagar. The cantonment was established in 1821, and was made the head-quarters of the Subsidiary force maintained by the British under treaty with the Nāgpur Rājā. The whole town is included in the cantonment. The receipts and expenditure of the cantonment fund during the last decade averaged 1·1 lakhs. In 1903–4 the receipts were Rs. 1,06,000 and the charges Rs. 1,18,000. During Marāthā rule traders flocked to Kamptee on account of the comparative immunity from taxation which they enjoyed within the cantonment, and a large commercial town thus grew up alongside it. Owing to its favourable situation on the roads leading to Nāgpur from the Sātpurā plateau, Kamptee for a long period monopolized the trade from this area; and it is only within comparatively recent years that the advantages possessed by Nāgpur, as the larger town and capital of the Province, have enabled it gradually to attract to itself the commercial business of Kamptee. To this transfer of trade are to be attributed the stationary or declining figures of population during the last thirty years, and the construction of the Sātpurā railway may tend to accelerate the process. The town contains three cotton-ginning and two pressing factories with a total capital of 2·4 lakhs, three of which were opened in 1891 and 1892 and the others since 1900. Muhammadan hand-weavers produce the cheaper kinds of cloth. Weekly cattle and timber markets are held, and the town contains one printing press. The Cantonment Magistrate, who has also the powers of a Small Cause Court Judge, has jurisdiction over the cantonment. The educational institutions comprise a Government high school, one English middle, two vernacular middle, and eleven primary schools. The Convent of St. Joseph maintains a boarding and day school for European children, teaching in some cases up to the matriculation standard, orphanages for native children, and a dispensary. Medical relief is afforded to the civil population at the Cantonment General Hospital and a branch dispensary in the town.

Kātol Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 17′ N. and 78° 36′ E., on the Jām river, 36 miles west of Nāgpur city by road. Population (1901), 7,313. The suburb of Budhwāra on the opposite side of the river has recently been included in its limits. Situated in the town are the ruins of an old fort, and a curious temple of very early date built entirely

of layers of sandstone with many grotesque carvings. Kātol is not a municipality, but a town fund is raised for sanitary purposes. The town is one of the important cotton markets of the Province, and contains 4 ginning factories with 160 gins and 3 cotton presses, having a total capital of about 5 lakhs. The mangoes grown locally have some reputation. Kātol has an English middle school and a dispensary.

Kelod.—Town in the Kātol *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 27′ N. and 78° 53′ E., 28 miles from Nāgpur city on the Chhindwāra road. The name is probably an abbreviation from *keljhar*, 'a plantain tree,' as plantain groves were formerly numerous here. Population (1901), 5,141. The town contains an old fort. Kelod is not a municipality, but a town fund is raised for sanitary purposes. A cotton-ginning factory has recently been opened. The chief local industry is the manufacture of large brass water-vessels. There is a vernacular middle school.

Khāpa.—Town in the Rāmtek *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 25′ N. and 79° 2′ E., on the Kanhān river, 22 miles north of Nāgpur city, and 6 miles from the Chhindwāra road. Population (1901), 7,615. The town is built on a site high above the river and immediately overhanging it, while on the land side it is completely shut in by fine groves. Khāpa was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 6,500. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 9,000, octroi being the principal head of receipt. Thirty years ago Khāpa was described as one of the most flourishing towns in the District, and its decrease in population is to be attributed to changes in the course of trade. Hand cotton-weaving, the principal local industry, is now declining owing to the competition of the mills. Khāpa is not favourably situated for the location of ginning and pressing factories, and is therefore being supplanted by its younger rivals in the centre of the cotton area. Cotton cloths in various colours for women are principally woven. Two weekly markets are held here, and the town contains a vernacular middle and girls' schools, and a dispensary.

Mohpā.—Town in the Kātol *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 19′ N. and 78° 50′ E., 21 miles north-west of Nāgpur city by road. Population (1901), 5,336. Mohpā is not a municipality, but a town fund is raised for sanitary purposes. A cotton-ginning factory with a capital of about Rs. 35,000 has been opened and another is under

construction. The town is surrounded by gardens, from which vegetables are sent to Nāgpur. It has a vernacular middle school.

Mowār.—Town in the Kātol *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 28′ N. and 78° 27′ E., on the Wardhā river bordering Berār, 53 miles north-west of Nāgpur city. Population (1901), 4,799. Mowār was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 3,600. In 1903–4 they were Rs. 4,000, the chief source of income being market dues. It has a small dyeing industry, but with this exception the population is solely agricultural. The town is surrounded by groves and gardens on all sides except towards the river. A large weekly market is held. There is a vernacular middle school.

Nāgpur City.—Capital of the Central Provinces, and head-quarters of the District of the same name, situated in 21° 9′ N. and 79° 7′ E., on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 520 miles from Bombay, and on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 701 miles from Calcutta, the two lines meeting here. The city stands on a small stream called the Nāg, from which it takes its name. Its site is somewhat low, sloping to the south-east, with an open plain beyond, while to the north and west rise small basaltic hills, on one side of which is situated the fort of SĪTĀBALDĪ, on another the residence of the Chief Commissioner, and on a third the great reservoir which supplies the city with water. Nāgpūr is steadily increasing in importance, the population at the last four enumerations having been: (1872) 84,441; (1881) 98,229; (1891) 117,014; (1901) 127,734. The population in 1901 included 104,453 Hindus, 17,368 Muhammadans, 436 Pārsīs, and 3,794 Christians, of whom 1,780 were Europeans and Eurasians. Descriptive.

Nāgpur was founded at the beginning of the eighteenth century by the Gond Rājā, Bakht Buland. It subsequently became the head-quarters of the Bhonsla Rājās, and in 1861 of the Central Provinces Administration. The battles of Sītābaldī and Nāgpur were fought here in 1817. Two small riots have occurred in recent years—one in 1896 at the commencement of the famine, and one in 1899 on the enforcement of plague measures—but both were immediately suppressed without loss of life. Nāgpur itself possesses no archaeological remains of interest, but some sculptures and inscribed slabs have been collected in the Museum from various parts of the Province. The city is also singularly bare of notable buildings;

and since the Bhonsla palace was burnt down in 1864, there is nothing deserving of mention. The residence of the present representative of the family is situated in the Sakardarā Bāgh, about a mile from the city, where a small menagerie is maintained. But the two fine reservoirs of Ambājheri and Telinkherī to the west of the city, the Jumā *talao* (tank) between the city and the railway station, and the Mahārājbāgh and the Telinkherī gardens form worthy monuments of the best period of Bhonsla rule, and have been greatly improved under British administration. The Mahārājbāgh also contains a menagerie. The hill and fort of Sītābaldī form a small cantonment, at which a detachment of infantry from the Kamptee garrison is stationed. Nāgpur is the head-quarters of two Volunteer battalions, whose combined strength in the station itself is five companies.

Municipal undertakings.

Nāgpur was constituted a municipality in 1864. The municipal receipts and expenditure during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 3,28,000. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 4,63,000, including octroi (Rs. 2,31,000), water rate (Rs. 34,000), and conservancy (Rs. 26,000); and the expenditure was Rs. 4,51,000, the chief items being refunds (Rs. 68,000), water-supply (Rs. 91,000), conservancy (Rs. 65,000), upkeep of roads (Rs. 15,000), drainage (Rs. 14,000), and repayment of loans (Rs. 22,000). The water-supply is obtained from the Ambājheri reservoir, distant four miles from the city. The works were first constructed in 1873, the embankment of the old tank being raised 17 feet, and pipes laid to carry water to the city by means of gravitation at a cost of 4 lakhs. In 1890 an extension was carried out at a cost of 3 lakhs to serve the higher parts of the city and civil station, which could not previously be supplied through want of sufficient head. The embankment was again raised by famine labour in 1900, and its present length is 1,033 yards, the greatest height being 35 feet. The catchment area of the tank is 6½ square miles, and the water surface 412 acres. In order to prevent the water-logging of the site of the city, as a result of the constant intake from an extraneous source of supply, a scheme for a surface drainage system has now been undertaken. In addition to the drainage scheme a sewage farm is proposed, and the cost of the whole project is estimated at about 10 lakhs. A concession has recently been granted by the municipal committee for the construction of a system of electric tramway lines along the principal roads.

Trade.

Nāgpur is the leading industrial and commercial town of the

centre of India, its trade being principally with Bombay. The Empress Mills, in which the late J. N. Tāta was the chief shareholder, were opened in 1877. They contain 1,400 looms and 67,000 spindles, the present capital being 47 lakhs. Their out-turn of yarn and cloth in 1904 was valued at 61 lakhs, and they employ 4,300 operatives. The Swadeshī Spinning and Weaving Mills were opened in 1892 with a capital of 15 lakhs; they have 180 looms and 16,500 spindles, employ 1,100 operatives, and produced goods to the value of 14 lakhs in 1904. In addition to the mills, twelve cotton-ginning and pressing factories containing 287 gins and 11 presses are now working, with an aggregate capital of 16·47 lakhs. The city contains eleven printing presses, with English, Hindī, and Marāthī type, and one English weekly and two native papers are published, besides the Central Provinces Law Reports. The principal hand industry is cotton-weaving, in which about 5,000 persons are engaged. They produce cotton cloths with silk borders and ornamented with gold and silver lace. Numbers of orange gardens have been planted in the vicinity of the town, and the fruit grown bears a very high reputation.

Officials and public institutions. Nāgpur is the head-quarters of the Central Provinces Administration and of all the Provincial heads of departments, besides the Commissioner and Divisional Judge, Nāgpur Division, a Deputy-Postmaster-General, an Inspector of Schools, and Executive Engineers for Roads and Buildings and Irrigation. The Inspector-General of Agriculture for India, the Deputy-Comptroller of Post Offices, Bombay Circle, and the Archdeacon of Nāgpur also have their head-quarters here. It contains one of the two Provincial lunatic asylums and one of the three Central jails. Numerous industries are carried on in the Central jail, among which may be mentioned printing and binding, wood-work (including Burmese carving), cane-work, and cloth-weaving. All the forms and registers used in the public offices of the Province, amounting to about ten million sheets annually, are printed or lithographed in the Nāgpur jail, which contains thirty presses of different sizes. The Agricultural department maintains a model farm, which is devoted to agricultural experiment and research. The Victoria Technical Institute is now under construction as a memorial to the late Queen Empress. When finished it will take over the Agricultural and Engineering classes in the schools, and also teach various handicrafts. Nāgpur is the head-quarters of a Roman Catholic diocese and has a cathedral and convent. There is also a mission of the Scottish Free

Church, of which the Rev. S. Hislop, whose ethnographical and other writings on the Central Provinces are well-known, was for long a member. The Morris and Hislop Colleges prepare candidates for degrees in Arts; they are aided, but not maintained, by Government, and had 207 students in 1903–4. The Morris College also prepares candidates for degrees in Law, and 42 students are taking this course. The other educational institutions comprise three aided high schools, containing together 404 students; and, besides middle school branches attached to the high schools, four English middle schools, of which two are for Muhammadan and Telugu boys respectively, and forty-five primary schools. The St. Francis de Sales and Bishop's schools are for European boys, and the St. Joseph's Convent school for girls. They are attended by 520 children. The special institutions consist of male and female normal schools for teachers, and the agricultural school. The normal schools train students to qualify for teaching in rural schools. They are entirely supported from Provincial revenues, and contain 39 male and 19 female students, both classes of whom receive stipends or scholarships. The agricultural school has 42 students; it is connected with the model farm, and gives instruction regarding improved methods and implements of agriculture to subordinate Government officials and the sons of landowners. The medical institutions comprise the Mayo and Dufferin hospitals for males and females respectively, with combined accommodation for 112 in-patients, and 9 other dispensaries.

Narkher.—Town in the Kātol *tahsīl* of Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 29′ N. and 78° 32′ E., 45 miles north-west of Nāgpur city by road through Kalmeshwar and Sawargaon. Population (1901), 7,726. Narkher is not a municipality, but a town fund is raised for sanitary purposes. The population is almost solely agricultural, and the lands surrounding the town are very rich, the revenue of Narkher village being the highest in the District. A large weekly cattle market is held, and there is a vernacular middle school.

Rāmtek Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 24′ N. and 79° 20′ E., 24 miles north-east of Nāgpur city by road and 13 miles from Sālwa railway station. Population (1901), 8,732. The town lies round the foot of a detached hill forming the western extremity of the small Ambāgarh range. As is shown

by its name ('the hill of Rāma' or Vishnu) it is a sacred place of the Hindus. On the hill, standing about 500 feet above the town, are a number of temples, which, owing to their many coats of whitewash, can be seen gleaming in the sun from a long distance. The principal temple is that of Rām Chandra standing above the others in the inner citadel, which is protected by two lines of walls, both of recent origin, while a third line runs round the Ambāla tank at the foot of the hill. The tank is lined throughout with stone revetments and steps; it is said to be very deep, and fish abound in it. From the west end of the tank a long flight of steps leads up the hill, at the opposite end of which another flight descends to the town of Rāmtek. About 27 tanks in all have been constructed round the town. Rāmtek was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 8,400. In 1903-4 the receipts were Rs. 10,000, derived mainly from octroi. A large religious fair is held here in December and a smaller one in March. The December fair lasts for 15 days, and a considerable amount of traffic in cloth and utensils takes place, dealers coming from Jubbulpore and Mandlā. A large area in the vicinity of the town is covered with betel-vine gardens. The variety called *kapūri* is chiefly grown, and is much esteemed locally. The importance of the town is now increasing, owing to the manganese mines which are worked in the tract adjoining it. A weekly cattle market is held. The educational institutions comprise an English middle, girls', and branch schools, and a dispensary has also been established.

Saoner.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Nāgpur, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 23′ N. and 78° 55′ E., 23 miles north-west of Nāgpur city on the Chhindwāra road. The town is built on both sides of the Kolār river, the people on the northern bank consisting of Marāthās, and those on the southern of Lodhīs, Kirārs, and other immigrants from Northern India. The present name is a corruption of the old one of Saraswatpur or 'the city of Saraswati,' the goddess of wisdom. Population (1901), 5,281. The town contains an old temple constructed of large blocks of stone without mortar, and the ruins of a fort ascribed to the Gaolīs. Saoner was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 2,800. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 5,000, derived mainly from a house tax, market dues, and rents of land. The town is an important cotton mart, and possesses three ginning factories containing

108 cotton gins, two of which are combined with cotton presses. The aggregate capital of these factories is about 4½ lakhs, and two of them have been opened since 1900. The Saoner ginning factory, started in 1883, was the first in the District. A hand-dyeing industry is also carried on, in connexion with which *āl* (*Morinda citrifolia*) was formerly cultivated round the town. A few trees are still left. A large weekly cattle market is held, and there are an English middle school and branch schools. A dispensary is maintained by the mission of the Scottish Free Church.

Sītābaldī.—A small hill and fort in Nāgpur city, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 9′ N. and 79° 7′ E. It was the scene of an important action in 1817. War between the British and the Peshwā of Poona had begun on November 14; but Appa Sāhib, the Bhonsla Rājā of Nāgpur, was nominally in alliance with the British, and Mr. (afterwards Sir Richard) Jenkins was Resident at his court. On November 24, however, Appa Sāhib received in public *darbār* a golden standard sent by the Peshwā and the title of general-in-chief of the Marāthā armies. This was held to be a declaration of hostility; and the Subsidiary force at Nāgpur, consisting of the 20th and 24th Madras Infantry, both very weak, 3 troops of Bengal cavalry, and 4 six-pounder guns, occupied Sītābaldī, a position consisting of two eminences joined by a narrow neck of ground about 300 yards in length, that to the north being smaller than the other. Here during the night of November 26 and the following day they were attacked by the Nāgpur troops, numbering 18,000 men, of whom a quarter were Arabs, with 36 guns. Numerous charges were repulsed, until at 9 a.m. on the 27th the explosion of an ammunition cart threw the defenders of the smaller hill into confusion, and it was carried by the enemy. The advantages afforded by the position to the British troops had now to a large extent been lost, the larger hill being within easy musket-range of the smaller. Officers and men were falling fast, and the enemy began to close in for a general assault on the position. At this critical moment the cavalry commander, Captain Fitzgerald, formed up his troops outside the Residency enclosure below the hill, where they had been waiting, charged the enemy's horse and captured a small battery. The dispirited infantry took heart on seeing this success, and the smaller hill was retaken by a combined effort. A second cavalry charge completed the discomfiture of the enemy, and by noon the battle was over. The British lost 367 killed and wounded. In

a few days the Resident was reinforced by fresh troops, and demanded the disbandment of the Nāgpur army. Appa Sāhib himself surrendered, but his troops prepared for resistance; and on December 16 was fought the battle of Nāgpur over the ground lying between the Nāg river, the Sakardarā tank, and the Sonegaon road. The Marāthā army was completely defeated and lost its whole camp with 40 elephants, 41 guns in battery, and 23 in a neighbouring dépôt. The result of this battle was the cession of all the Nāgpur territories north of the Narbadā, and Northern Berār.

Umrer Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Nāgpur District, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 52′ N. and 79° 20′ E., 29 miles south-east of Nāgpur city on the metalled road to Mūl in Chānda. Population (1901), 15,943. Umrer is the eleventh town in the Province in size. It contains a Marāthā fort and an old temple inside it with walls 17 feet thick, which is supposed to have been built by Rājā Kārn Sāh of Chānda in the sixteenth century. Umrer was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 17,400. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 24,000, principally derived from octroi. The staple industry of Umrer is the weaving of cotton cloths with silk borders by hand. White loin-cloths with red borders are generally woven, the thread being dyed with lac. About 10,000 persons are dependent on the industry. Umrer possesses English middle, girls', and private Urdū schools, and a dispensary. A small weekly cattle market is held.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Chānda District.—Southernmost District of the Central Provinces, in the Nāgpur Division, and lying between 18° 42′ and 20° 52′ N. and 78° 48′ and 81° E., with an area of 10,156 square miles. It is bounded on the north by the Nāndgaon State and Bhandāra, Nāgpur, and Wardhā Districts; on the west and south-west by the Yeotmāl District of Berār and the Nizām's Dominions; and on the east by the Bastar and Kānker States and Drug District. The shape of the District is an irregular triangle with its base to the north and tapering to the south, where the narrow strip of the Sironchā *tahsīl* runs down beside the Godāvari river. The Wardhā, Prānhita, and Godāvari rivers successively mark the western border, while to the north the Wunnā divides Chānda from Wardhā District for a short distance previous to its junction with the Wardhā. The western portion, between the Wardhā and Erai rivers, and a small strip along the north consist of undulating open country. East of this, to the Waingangā, the surface is generally broken

either by isolated hills or small ranges, large areas are covered with forest, and the soil is generally sandy. The Waingangā flows from north to south through the centre of the District to its junction with the Wardhā at Seonī, when their combined streams become the Prānhitā. The greater part of the country east of it is included in the *zamīndāri* estates, and consists of an elevated plateau stretching from north to south along the entire length of the District, from which again rise numerous ranges of hills, while dense masses of forest extend over plateau and valleys alike. As already noted, three of the leading rivers of the Province, the Wardhā, Waingangā, and Godāvari, are included in the drainage system of Chānda, while the Seonāth, the largest feeder of the Mahānadī, rises in the north-eastern *zamīndāris*. Each of these streams has numerous tributaries, the most important of those joining the Waingangā being the Andhāri, the Botewāhi, the Denī, the Garhvī, and the Kobrāgarhī, which with the main river carry off the drainage of the central and eastern portion of the District. The chief affluents of the Wardhā are the Pengangā and Erai, while the Bandiā drains the south-eastern *zamīndāris* and joins the Indrāvati. West of the Waingangā the principal hills are the Chimur, Mūl, and Phersāgarh ranges, and east of it those of Surjāgarh and Tīpāgarh. The general height of the plain country is about 900 feet above sea-level in the north of the District, falling to 658 feet at Chānda and 406 at Sironchā. Except in the open country on the west and north, the whole District is thickly wooded.

Geology. East of the Waingangā gneissic rocks constitute the principal formation, granite, gneiss, and quartz being the typical rocks. To the west of that river the District is mainly occupied by rocks of the Upper Gondwāna system, consisting of red clay and soft sandstone, covered by coarse, loosely-compacted sandstone and shale. Fossil remains have been found in three well-defined seams of limestone. The Wardhā valley coal-field occupies a belt of 75 miles along the Wardhā river, and an area of about 1,000 square miles.

Botany. The forest vegetation in the District is of a mixed character. Teak (*Tectona grandis*) is fairly general, but is not anywhere very plentiful. The principal trees are *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*), *rohan* (*Soymida febrifuga*), *kaddam* (*Stephegyne parvifolia*), *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*), *semur* (*Bombax malabaricum*), *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*), *dhaurā* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *tendū* (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), *garāri* (*Cleistanthus collinus*), and *palās* (*Butea frondosa*). *Salai*

(*Boswellia serrata*) is very abundant on the dry hills and plateaux; other trees met with are *behrā* or satin-wood (*Chloroxylon Swietenia*), *reunjhā* (*Acacia leucophloea*), *baherā* (*Terminalia belerica*), *siris* (*Albizzia odoratissima*), *kaikrā* (*Garuga pinnata*), *moyen* (*Odina Wodier*), *ghant* or *mokhā* (*Schrebera swietenioides*), *pader* (*Stereospermum chelonoides*), *anjan* (*Terminalia Arjuna*), and *nirmali* (*Strychnos potatorum*). Near villages tamarinds and mangoes abound, and in the south of the District groves of the palmyra palm (*Borassus flabellifer*) occur.

Fauna. Almost all the wild animals belonging to the Central Provinces occur in Chānda District, with the probable exception of the hunting leopard. Tigers and leopards are comparatively frequent, and bears are common in parts. The bison occurs in suitable forests. The buffalo is found only in the Ahiri *zamīndāri* and part of the Ghot *pargana*. *Sāmbar* are fairly numerous in suitable forests, but spotted deer are comparatively rare. The *bārāsinghā* or swamp deer is found in Ahiri in small numbers, and the mouse deer in the same forests. Antelope are decreasing in numbers in the open country on the west. In the Ahiri range is found the large maroon squirrel. Wild hog are numerous, and large packs of wild dogs have been most destructive to the game. All the usual game birds are also found, and duck and snipe visit the District in considerable numbers during the cold season.

Climate and temperature. The climate is slightly hotter than that of Nāgpur, and the heat of the summer months is trying. On the whole, however, the climate is healthy, and for a rice District malaria is exceptionally rare. The autumn months are as usual the most unhealthy.

Rainfall. The annual rainfall averages 51 inches at Chānda town and 46 at Warorā. Failure of rainfall has been very infrequent.

History. Bhāndak, a village near Chānda, was possibly the capital of the old Hindu kingdom of Vākātaka, embracing the modern Province of Berār and the parts of the Central Provinces south of the Narbadā and east as far as the Waingangā. Inscriptions show that this kingdom existed from the fourth to the twelfth century, or until shortly after the rise into power of the Gond dynasty of Chānda. The Gonds probably became prominent between the eleventh and twelfth century on the ruins of the old Hindu kingdom. The names of nineteen kings are given as having reigned from the foundation of the dynasty to 1751. The Chānda kings are called the Ballār Sāhi family after Sarjā Ballār Sāh, the ninth prince, who may have lived in the begin-

ning of the fifteenth century, and who assumed this title after proceeding to Delhi. The eleventh prince, Hir Sāh, built the Chānda citadel, and completed the city walls which had been founded by his predecessor. His grandson, Kārn Sāh, was probably the first of the line to adopt the Hindu faith. The son of this Kārn Sāh is mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbarī* as an independent prince, paying no tribute to Delhi, and having an army of 1,000 cavalry and 40,000 infantry. From the time of Akbar until the days of the Marāthās, the Chānda princes seem to have been tolerably independent and powerful, for both in their own annals and in those of the Deogarh line we find them recorded as gaining an important victory over the latter rising Gond power in the middle of the seventeenth century. Probably it is to this period that may be referred the carvings of the Chānda device, a winged lion, which have lately been found on the walls of Gāwīlgarh, a famous hill-fortress on the southern brow of the Sātpurā range, which was for long the stronghold of Berār. The Gond kings of Chānda are shown by their architectural achievements—the 5½ miles of stone walls of Chānda, its fine gates, and its regal tombs, the stone embankment and remains of the palace on the Junonā tank, and other buildings—to have attained a comparatively advanced degree of civilization. Their rule was peaceful and beneficent, they extended cultivation and irrigation, and under them the District attained a degree of prosperity which has perhaps not since been equalled. In 1751 the Gonds were ousted, and the District passed under the control of the Marāthās, forming from this period a portion of the Nāgpur kingdom. Chānda with Chhattīsgarh was allotted in succession to the younger brothers of two of the Bhonsla Rājās, and under their wasteful and rapacious government the condition of the District greatly deteriorated. In 1817 occurred the rebellion of Appa Sāhib; and in support of his cause the *zamīndār* of Ahiri garrisoned Chānda against the British, while an army dispatched to Appa Sāhib's assistance by the Peshwā of Poona reached the Wardhā river ten miles west of Chānda. It was attacked and defeated by two British brigades at Pāndharkawadā in April, 1818; and the British forces then proceeded to Chānda and, after a few days' siege, carried the town by assault, the regular garrison falling to a man in its defence.

From 1818 till 1830 the District was administered by British officers under Sir Richard Jenkins, and subsequently made over to Raghujī III, the last Bhonsla Rājā. On his death

without heirs it lapsed to the British Government in 1853. During the Mutiny the two petty *zamīndārs* of Monumpallī and Arpallī with Ghot rebelled, and raised a mixed force of Gonds and north-country Rohillas. Two telegraph officers encamped on the Prānhita were murdered. The disturbance was put down and the rebel *zamīndārs* captured, largely by the aid of Lakshmī Bai, *zamīndār* of Ahiri. As a reward she received sixty-seven villages of their forfeited territories, comprising the Ghot *pargana*, which the *zamīndār* of Ahiri holds in ordinary proprietary right. The descendant of the old Gond ruling family still lives in Chānda and receives a small political pension, first granted by the Marāthās and continued by the British. In 1860 the British Government obtained by cession from the Nizām six *tāluks* on the left bank of the Godāvari, which were formed into the Upper Godāvari District of the Central Provinces. In 1874 the Upper Godāvari District was abolished, and four *tāluks* became the Sironchā *tahsīl* of Chānda District, while the remaining two were incorporated with the Madras Presidency. It has recently been decided to transfer three of these *tāluks* to Madras[1].

Archaeology.

Chānda is rich in antiquarian remains, the most important of which are described in the articles on BHĀNDAK, CHĀNDA TOWN, and MĀRKANDĪ. Of the others but a bare list can be given. They include the cave temples at Bhāndak and Winjbāsani, Dewāla and Ghūgus; the rock temple in the bed of the Wardhā below Ballālpur, which during the flood season is several fathoms under water; the ancient temples at Mārkandī, Nerī, Warhā, Armorī, Deotek, Bhatāla, Bhāndak, Wairāgarh, Wāghnak, Keslāborī, and Ghorpeth; and the forts of Wairāgarh, Ballālpur, Khatorā, and Segaon.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 649,146; (1891) 697,610; (1901) 601,533. Between 1881 and 1891 the rate of increase was 7½ per cent. During the last decade the population has decreased by 14·6 per cent. The District had poor crops both in 1896 and in 1897, and was very severely affected by famine in 1900. The largest decreases were in the *zamīndāris* of the Chānda and Bramhapurī *tahsīls*, which lost 15½ and 24½ per cent. respectively, while the decline in the Bramhapurī *tahsīl* outside the *zamīndāris* was 20 per cent. In the Sironchā *tahsīl* the *jowār* crop did not fail in 1897, and the people gained by the high prices prevailing for produce. The District

[1] This transfer had been sanctioned and the arrangements for it were under consideration at the time of writing (1906).

has two towns, CHĀNDA and WARORĀ, and 2,584 inhabited villages. The principal statistics of population, based on the Census of 1901, are shown below :—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Chānda	1,174	1	319	121,040	103	− 8.6	3,046
Warorā	1,282	1	406	134,547	105	− 6.9	3,510
Bramhapurī	897	..	340	115,049	128	− 20.2	2,049
Sironchā	3,095	..	421	55,465	18	+ 7.2	788
Garhchirolī	3,708	..	1,098	155,214	42	− 25.3	2,029
District total	10,156	2	2,584	581,315	57	− 14.6	11,422

The transfer of the *tāluks* of Nugur, Albāka, and Cherlā of the Sironchā *tahsīl*, covering an area of 593 square miles and containing 142 villages with 20,218 inhabitants, to the Madras Presidency, which was under contemplation in 1906, has been allowed for in the statistics given above. In 1905 the Ahiri *zamīndāri* was transferred to the Sironchā *tahsīl*, and a new *tahsīl* was formed at Garhchirolī, containing the *zamīndāris* of the Bramhapurī *tahsīl* and those of the Chānda *tahsīl* except Ahiri, with a strip of non-*zamīndāri* area. The corrected District figures of area and population are 10,156 square miles and 581,315 persons. The statistics given in the remainder of this article are for the District as it stood before the transfer of territory, with the exception of those of density and number of villages. The density of population is only 57 persons per square mile, being the lowest in the Province. The open country is fairly well populated, but the large *zamīndāri* areas are for the most part covered with forest and contain very few inhabitants. About 77 per cent. of the population are Hindus and 21 per cent. Animists. Muhammadans number more than 10,000, of whom about a quarter live in Chānda and Warorā. There is great diversity of language, as of caste, in Chānda; 63 per cent. of the population speak Marāthī, more than 16 per cent. Gondī, 12 per cent. Telugu, and 5 per cent. the Chhattīsgarhi dialect of Eastern Hindī. The Telugu population reside principally in the Sironchā *tahsīl*, but numbers of persons belonging to Telugu castes are found in several large villages of the Chānda *tahsīl*. The speakers of Chhattīsgarhi belong chiefly to the Ambāgarh-Chaukī *zamīndāri* in the north-east corner of the District, which adjoins

Nāndgaon. The Marāthī speakers live all over the open country, while the forests east and south of the Waingangā are populated chiefly by Gonds.

Their castes and occupations.

Brāhmans (5,000) are the largest landholders. Kunbīs (95,000) and Marāthās (1,500) together form 17 per cent. of the population. Kohlīs number 7,000; but with the decay of sugar-cane cultivation and the repeated failures of rice, they have fallen into poor circumstances. Other numerous castes are Ahīrs or herdsmen (17,000), and Telis or oil-pressers (32,000), both of whom are now engaged principally in cultivation. Gonds (135,000) form nearly a quarter of the whole population. The Māria Gonds are almost a separate race. They are generally tall and well built, in great contrast to the ordinary type of Gond. Their marriage is adult, and the consent of the girl is essential. Sexual licence before marriage is an ordinary custom, but after marriage husbands not infrequently murder their wives, if they discover that they have been unfaithful. In a District with so many rivers, Dhīmars (31,000) or fishermen are naturally numerous, forming about 5 per cent. of the population. They are generally in poor circumstances, as also are the impure menial caste of Mehras or Mahārs (74,000), who constitute 12 per cent. The whole of the Sironchā *tahsīl* is held by a superior proprietor of the Velamā caste, who resides at Hyderābād. About 70 per cent. of the population were returned as dependent on agriculture in 1901.

Christian missions.

Christians number 266, of whom 204 are natives. The Church of Scotland supports a mission in Chānda with four schools, while in Sironchā the American Methodist Mission, founded in 1893, has several schools principally for the depressed Dher boys.

General agricultural conditions.

Black soil is found in the tracts adjoining the Wardhā river, and in the *doāb* between the Wardhā and Erai comprising most of the Warorā *tāhsīl*, and north of Chimur. An alluvial belt of black soil mixed with sand also occurs on the banks of the Waingangā. Elsewhere the yellow soil formed from metamorphic rock is generally prevalent. Inferior sandy and stony soils cover a large area in the *zamīndāris*. In the Sironchā *tahsīl* a good deal of alluvial black soil is found on the banks of the Godāvari. Linseed, gram, and wheat are grown principally in the black soil lands of the Chānda Haveli and those adjoining the Wardhā river, while *jowār* is the chief crop in Sironchā and the Warorā *tahsīl*, and rice in the centre and east of the District.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

[1] About 4,851 square miles, amounting to 48 per cent. of the total area of the District, are included in the twenty *zamīndāri* estates, while 9,000 acres are held free of revenue, and 8,000 have been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules. More than 300 square miles have been allotted for settlement on the *ryotwāri* system, of which 55 square miles are cultivated and pay a revenue of Rs. 21,000. The principal statistics of cultivation in 1903–4 are shown below, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Chānda . . .	1,174	283	44	367	554
Warorā . . .	1,282	515	25	366	346
Bramhapurī . .	897	202	56	306	443
Sironchā . . .	3,095	86	6	279	480
Garhchirolī . .	3,708	426	51	1,104	849
Total	10,156	1,512	182	2.422	2,672

Considerable areas of land are at present under old and new fallows. Rice covers 355 square miles, *jowār* 349 square miles, linseed and *til* 95 square miles each, cotton 79 square miles, wheat 67 square miles, and gram 31 square miles. In recent years the acreage of the wheat crop has fallen by a half, while that of *jowār* has increased by more than 50 per cent. *Jowār* is grown both as an autumn and spring crop, the latter predominating. Cotton is also grown both as an autumn and spring crop, the latter practice being followed in the rice country in the same manner as with *jowār*, the reason in both cases probably being to avoid the deleterious effect produced by a heavy rainfall. The spring cotton is said to have the stronger staple. *Til* has become a crop of some importance in recent years. Less than 1,000 acres are now under sugarcane; its cultivation has decreased with the unfavourable seasons, owing to the inability of the local product to compete in price with that from Northern India. Bhāndak and the adjoining village of Chichordī contain a number of betel-vine gardens, and the leaf produced is of good quality. In the *zamīndāris* the Gonds still practise *dahya* or shifting cultivation. A plot of ground is covered with brushwood, 4 to 6 inches deep. This is fired just before the rains, and, when they break, rice is scattered broadcast among the ashes. In the

[1] In the statistics of cultivation and cultivable waste here given, 2,994 square miles of waste land in the *zamīndāri* estates which have not been cadastrally surveyed are excluded from the total area of the District.

second year a small millet is sown, and the land is then left fallow for ten years, as the available timber fuel near it has been exhausted, and its transport from a distance is extremely laborious. Rents are paid by the 'axe' of land, which is roughly about an acre.

The area under the valuable cotton crop has nearly trebled in the last few years, while manure is now more largely applied to both rice and cotton. During the decade ending 1904 Rs. 92,000 was advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act, principally for the construction of irrigation tanks, and $5\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act. Improvements in agricultural practice.

As regards the extent of irrigation Chānda is second only to Bhandāra. In a normal year nearly 230 square miles, or 22 per cent. of the cropped area, are irrigated. In 1903-4 the area was 182 square miles. About 7,000 acres of this consists of garden crops and sugar-cane, and the remainder of rice. Irrigation is applied in the usual manner from tanks, both by percolation and by cutting an outlet in the embankment and carrying the water to the fields through mud channels. A very few of the largest tanks are provided with an inferior masonry outlet, but most of them have no sluices or permanent waste-weirs. The supply of water depends on a sufficient quantity of rainfall to fill the tanks, and in years of complete drought only a quarter of the ordinary area can be irrigated. There are nearly 6,000 tanks in the District, with an ordinary capacity of irrigating an average of 24 acres each, and about 1,600 wells, which supply an acre and a half each. The best tanks are situated in the tract north of Mūl, on both sides of the Nāgpur road. Profitable schemes for tanks to irrigate an additional 100,000 acres at a cost of about 20 lakhs have been prepared by the Irrigation department, in addition to a number of other protective projects. A scheme for a canal in the *doāb* between the Waingangā and Andhāri rivers has been suggested. Irrigation.

Cattle are bred all over the District in the forest tracts, the bulls being selected and kept for breeding. The bullocks used for rice cultivation are small and usually white, while in the spring-crop country large bullocks, like those of Berār, and usually red and white or reddish brown in colour, are employed. There is a considerable difference in the price, and also in the working life of the two breeds, those used in the rice country being much cheaper, and, owing to the severity of the work, shorter-lived than the others. Buffaloes are used for the carriage of the rice plants in transplantation, but they Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

are not much in favour. Most of the *ghī* produced is from buffalo's milk. Goats and sheep are kept in large numbers in Chānda, the total of sheep being greater than in any other District of the Central Provinces except Raipur. They are kept by the professional shepherd castes of Dhangars and Kuramwārs, and the manure which they afford is valuable. In Sironchā there is a special breed of large, straight-haired sheep, generally white, and sometimes reddish brown in colour. They grow to 3 feet high at the shoulder, and give 1 to 2 seers (2 to 4 lb.) of milk which is used for the manufacture of *ghī*. The rams are used for fighting, and matches are arranged on festivals.

Forests. Government forests cover 2,672 square miles, or about 26 per cent. of the total area of the District. In addition to this the *zamīndārī* and *mālguzāri* forests cover 3,919 square miles. The forests are well distributed, and very few villages are more than three miles from some part of them. The most important tracts are the Ahiri range, which supplies teak for export, and the Mohurlī and Haveli ranges, which used to supply the Warorā colliery with pit-props, fuel, and charcoal. The ordinary species of trees found have already been described. The extensive bamboo forests west of the Waingangā seeded in 1900, but most of the seed was destroyed by an insect, so that there has been little reproduction. A considerable quantity of lac was formerly gathered, but it was recklessly taken for sale during the famine, leaving no wood for stock, and the supplies have consequently been depleted. The forest revenue in 1903-4 amounted to about 2 lakhs, of which Rs. 75,000 was realized from sales of timber and Rs. 55,000 from grazing fees.

Minerals. A colliery was worked by Government at Warorā in the Wardhā valley coal-field from 1871, the output of coal in 1904 being about 112,000 tons, which sold for 5·2 lakhs, while the net earnings were nearly 2 lakhs. About 1,000 persons were employed in the colliery. The coal was sold to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, to municipalities for water-works, and to cotton mills and ginning factories. The Warorā colliery was closed in 1906. Another coal-field exists at Bandar, about 30 miles north-east of Warorā, which contains three seams with a total thickness of 38 feet. Seams have also been found at Ballālpur, six miles south of Chānda, at Dudholī, a village near it, and at Ghūgus on the Wardhā river. Test borings have been made at Ballālpur by Government, but owing to the proximity of the river much difficulty has been found in sinking the pits.

A prospecting licence has been granted for Dudholī. There are old copper mines at Thanwāsana in the Ghātkul tract, at Govindpur near Talodhī, and at Mendhā near Rajolī. Iron ores of good quality occur, the best known localities being Dewalgaon, Gunjewāhi, Lohāra, Pīpalgaon, and Ratnapur. The ores at Lohāra and Pīpalgaon contain 69 and 71 per cent. of iron respectively. About 1,150 tons of iron were smelted in 1904 by primitive charcoal furnaces, but the industry is not prosperous. Diamond mines formerly existed on the Sātti river, a tributary of the Kobrāgarhī near Wairāgarh, and gold dust is obtained by washing in the Waingangā and Indrāvati rivers. Good building stone is found in several localities, and red, yellow, and white clay at Chānda. Limestone brought from Berār is burned at Bhāndak, and lime is also prepared at Ratnapur near Gadborī and Nawegaon.

Arts and manufactures.

The *tasar* silkworm is bred by Dhīmārs in the forests of the Wairāgarh and Sindewāhi ranges, and silk is woven by the caste of Koskatis at Chāmursi and one or two other villages. It is principally used for turbans. Silk loin-cloths and *cholīs* or bodices for women are woven by a few houses of Patwīs at Chānda with thread obtained from Bengal; they are usually red or yellow in colour. The weaving of silk-bordered cotton cloths is a considerable industry, and the products of Chānda were formerly exported over a large area. Chānda, Chimur, and Armorī are the principal centres, but there are a number of weavers in all the large villages in the north of the District. The cloths are sometimes embroidered with gold and silver thread. Ordinary coarse cotton cloth is woven by large numbers of Mahārs, from mill-spun thread. The better class of coloured cloths are woven with thread dyed in the mills, but thread is sometimes dyed black locally with imported indigo. The inferior cloths are dyed red and blue in the ordinary manner by Chhīpas and Rangāris, the principal centres being Chānda, Mūl, Saoli, and Bramhapurī; but only the poorer classes wear cloths dyed by indigenous methods, as they have a peculiar odour. Gold and silver ornaments of a special pattern are made at Chānda, specimens of which were sent to the Delhi Exhibition. They are made with a base of silver, on which are fixed pieces of lacquered wood of different patterns, the surface being then covered with gold leaf. Brass and copper vessels are made at Chānda and Nerī in the Bramhapurī *tahsīl*, and also ornaments of a mixture of three parts of brass and one of zinc, which are worn by the poorer classes. Good lacquer-work is turned out at Pomurnā. Articles of bamboo are also lacquered at Chānda.

Ornamental slippers are made at the same place, patterns being worked on them with silk thread. Warorā has a fire-clay brick and tile factory formerly worked by Government in connexion with the colliery, and two cotton presses and four ginning factories have been opened in the last few years.

Commerce.

The principal exports by rail are oilseeds, timber, hides and horns, cotton, and pulses. Rice goes chiefly by cart to Berār, Hyderābād, and Wardhā. Small quantities of wheat are sometimes sent by road from the Bramhapurī *tahsīl* to Nāgpur. The oilseeds are linseed, *til*, castor, and mustard, while *mahuā* oil is also an important product. Cotton has only come into prominence in the last few years. Large quantities of teak-wood are sent from Alāpillai and from the northern *zamīndāris* by road. Bamboos, gum, myrabolams, and lac are also exported from the forest near the railway. Grass and charcoal are sometimes taken from the northern *zamīndāris* for sale in Raipur District. *Sāmbar* horns are exported for the manufacture of knife-handles. The flowers of the *mahuā* are sent to Wardhā and Berār. Superior bricks and tiles are made in the Warorā colliery, and are sold locally and also sent out of the District. Silk-bordered cloths are largely exported to Nāgpur, Berār, and Hyderābād. Leather shoes and ropes are sent to Berār. Salt, sugar, thread, cotton piece-goods, metals, and kerosene oil are the principal imports. The salt used is sea-salt from Bombay. Sugar comes principally from the Mauritius, and to a less extent from Northern India. *Gur*, or unrefined sugar, is largely imported from Bangalore and Northern India, the trade having sprung up within the last ten years.

Railways and roads.

The Wardhā-Warorā branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway enters the north-western corner of the District, with stations at Nāgri and Warorā. An extension of the railway through Chānda to the coal-mines at Ballālpur is now under construction. Nearly the whole external trade of the District passes through Warorā station, which is connected by metalled roads with Chānda and Chimur, and by an unmetalled road with Wūn in Berār. The Mūl and Sironchā roads are the most important routes leading from Chānda into the interior of the District. During the rainy season some produce is carried by boat on the Waingangā between Bhandāra and Armorī, and during the famine grain was brought down by boat to Garhchirolī. Considering its size, the District is not well provided with roads. The length of metalled roads is 79 miles, and of unmetalled roads 398 miles; the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 54,000. The Public Works department has charge

of 298 miles of road and the District council of 179. There are avenues of trees on 58 miles.

Famine.

Previous to the last decade there is little record of distress in Chānda. The District suffered in 1868–9, but not so severely as other parts of the Province, and little or no relief appears to have been given. From this date conditions were generally prosperous until 1891–2, from which year there were successive short crops until 1896–7, caused in three years by cloudy and rainy weather during the winter months, and in three years by premature cessation of the monsoon rainfall. The failure of 1896–7 was not in itself severe, as an average out-turn of half the normal was obtained from all crops, but following on the previous lean years it caused some distress. Relief was principally given by granting loans for the construction and improvement of tanks. The mortality was never excessive. In 1899–1900 a complete failure of crops occurred and severe famine prevailed, aggravated by epidemics of cholera and dysentery arising from the scarcity of water, and 32 per cent. of the population were at one time on relief. Several road works were undertaken, 54 new tanks constructed, and 238 repaired or improved. The total expenditure was 44 lakhs.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner is aided by four Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into five *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. Owing to the extent of its forests the District has two Forest officers, both of the Imperial service.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and a Subordinate Judge, and a Munsif for each of the Chānda, Warorā, and Bramhapurī *tahsīls*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nāgpur Division has jurisdiction in Chānda. Crime and litigation are of the ordinary type.

Land revenue administration.

During the ten years previous to the commencement of British management the collections of land revenue averaged 3·34 lakhs. The practice was to give short leases for a period of three to five years, leaving the *pātel* or village headman from 13 to 15 per cent. of the 'assets.' Various miscellaneous taxes and transit dues realized under Marāthā rule were abolished when the District became British territory. The last period of Marāthā rule, from 1830 to 1853, was characterized by reckless misgovernment. Many of the old hereditary headmen were dispossessed and their villages made over to Brāhman officials on a reduced assessment, while in order to make up the loss of revenue every device was employed to

extort increased sums from those who remained. In 1862–3, when the first regular settlement was begun, the demand had fallen to 2·65 lakhs. The revision of assessment was concluded in 1869, the term fixed being thirty, twenty, and thirteen years in different areas. The tract settled for thirteen years consisted of certain villages in the Ghot *pargana*. The revised revenue was fixed at 2·64 lakhs, of which Rs. 22,000 was 'assigned'; but this sum excludes Rs. 59,000 on account of *zamīndāri* estates, and the revenue of the Sironchā *tahsīl*, which then constituted a separate District. The village headmen were made proprietors, and all tenants received occupancy rights. The Amgaon, Rājgarh, Ghātkul, and Wairāgarh *parganas*, in which the revenue had been fixed for only twenty years, were summarily settled in 1886–8. On the expiry of the thirty years' settlement, a fresh revision was undertaken in 1898, and is still (1906) in progress, its conclusion having been delayed by the famines. The collections of land and total revenue in recent years are shown below, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880–1.	1890–1.	1900–1.	1903–4.
Land revenue . .	2,78	3,03	2,19	3,36
Total revenue . .	6,43	7,82	5,89	8,65

Local boards and municipalities. The management of local affairs outside municipal areas is entrusted to a District council and four local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*, while the funds raised for Sironchā are administered by the Deputy-Commissioner. The income of the District council in 1903–4 was Rs. 54,000; and the expenditure on public works was Rs. 11,000, on education Rs. 21,000, and on medical relief Rs. 5,000. CHĀNDA and WARORĀ are municipal towns.

Police and jails. The District Superintendent of Police is usually aided by an Assistant, and has a force of 663 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, besides 1,889 village watchmen for 2,584 inhabited villages. Chānda has a District jail with accommodation for 148 prisoners, including 13 females, and Sironchā a subsidiary jail accommodating 53 prisoners. The daily average number of prisoners in the Chānda jail in 1904 was 61, and in the Sironchā jail between 3 and 4.

Education. In respect of education Chānda stands thirteenth in the Province, about 2 per cent. of the population (3·9 males and 0·1 females) being able to read and write. The percentage of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 8.

Statistics of the number of pupils under instruction are as follows: (1880–1) 3,670; (1890–1) 5,495; (1900–1) 5,278; (1903–4) 6,998, including 265 girls. The educational institutions comprise a high school at Chānda town conducted by private individuals, 3 English middle schools, 4 vernacular middle schools, and 114 primary schools. There are four girls' schools in the District. Three schools for boys and one for girls are conducted by the Chānda Mission. The expenditure on education in 1903–4 was Rs. 42,000, of which Rs. 38,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 4,000 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries. The District has 14 dispensaries, with accommodation for 53 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 91,306, of whom 506 were in-patients, and 1,498 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 35,000, of which the greater part was provided from Provincial and Local funds.

Vaccination. Vaccination is not compulsory in any part of the District, and only 32 per 1,000 of the population were successfully vaccinated in 1903–4.

[Major Lucie Smith, *Settlement Report*, 1869. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Chānda Tahsīl.—Central *tahsīl* of the District of the same name, Central Provinces. In 1901 its area was 5,058 square miles, and its population 195,385 persons. In 1905 the constitution of the *tahsīl* was entirely altered, the large Ahiri *zamīndāri* estate being transferred to the Sironchā *tahsīl*, and the remaining *zamīndāri* estates with a tract on the east of Chānda to the new Garhchirolī *tahsīl*. The revised area of the Chānda *tahsīl* is 1,174 square miles, and its population 121,040 persons, the density being 103 persons per square mile. The population in 1891 of the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was 132,477. The *tahsīl* contains one town, CHĀNDA (population, 17,803), the District and *tahsīl* headquarters, and 319 inhabited villages. Excluding 554 square miles of Government forest, 59 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. With the exception of a small open black soil tract on the western border, the *tahsīl* consists of rice country and is covered over a great part of its area with hill and forest. The land revenue demand for the new *tahsīl* was approximately Rs. 60,000, before the revision of settlement now in progress.

Warorā Tahsīl.—North-western *tahsīl* of Chānda District, Central Provinces, lying between 19° 59′ and 20° 44′ N. and

78° 48′ and 79° 37′ E., with an area of 1,282 square miles. The population in 1901 was 134,547, compared with 144,580 in 1891. The density is 105 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, WARORĀ (population, 10,626), the head-quarters, and 406 inhabited villages. Excluding 346 square miles of Government forest, 71 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 515 square miles. The demand for land revenue in the same year was Rs. 1,14,000, and for cesses Rs. 13,000. The greater part of the *tahsīl* is an open black soil tract in the valley of the Wardhā river, bearing spring crops, and thus differing considerably from the rest of Chānda, which is mainly a rice District, and resembling rather the adjoining District of Wardhā.

Bramhapurī (*Brahmapurī*).—Northern *tahsīl* of Chānda District, Central Provinces. In 1901 its area was 3,324 square miles, and its population 220,453 persons. In 1905 a new *tahsīl* was constituted at Garhchirolī to which 2,527 square miles, including fifteen *zamīndāri* estates with a total area of over 2,000 square miles, were transferred from Bramhapurī, the Bramhapurī *tahsīl* at the same time receiving a small accession of 100 square miles of territory from Chānda. The revised totals of area and population of the Bramhapurī *tahsīl* are 897 square miles and 115,049 persons. The population in 1891 of the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was 144,157. The density is 128 persons per square mile, and the *tahsīl* contains 340 inhabited villages. Its head-quarters are at Bramhapurī, a village of 4,238 inhabitants, 77 miles from Chānda town by road. The *tahsīl* contains 443 square miles of Government forest. The land revenue demand in 1903–4 for the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was approximately Rs. 82,000. Bramhapurī is almost wholly rice country, and contains a number of fine irrigation tanks in the larger villages.

Sironchā.—Southern *tahsīl* of Chānda District, Central Provinces. In 1901 its area was 1,085 square miles, and its population 51,148 persons. The transfer of the *tāluks* of Nugur, Albāka, and Cherlā of the Sironchā *tahsīl*, covering an area of 593 square miles and containing 142 villages with 20,218 persons, to the Madras Presidency has been sanctioned, but further details of administration were being considered in 1906. In 1905 an area of 2,603 square miles of the Chānda *tahsīl*, of which 2,600 were in the Ahiri *zamīndāri* estate, was transferred to Sironchā. The revised totals of area and population of the Sironchā *tahsīl* are 3,095 square miles and 55,465

persons. The population in 1891 of the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was 51,732. The density is only 18 persons per square mile, and the *tahsīl* contains 421 inhabited villages. Its head-quarters are at Sironchā, a village of 2,813 inhabitants, 130 miles from Chānda town by road. The area of Government forest in the new *tahsīl* is 480 square miles, while 2,254 square miles of the Ahiri *zamīndāri* are covered by tree-forest, scrub-jungle, or grass. The northern portion of the *tahsīl* comprised in the Ahiri *zamīndāri* is one of the most densely wooded and sparsely populated areas in the Province; to the south of this Sironchā extends in a long narrow strip to the east of the Godāvari, and consists of a belt of rich alluvial soil along the banks of the river and its affluents, with forests and hills in the background. The population is wholly Telugu. The land revenue demand of the *tahsīl* was approximately Rs. 17,000, before the revision of settlement now in progress.

Garhchirolī.—*Tahsīl* of Chānda District, Central Provinces, constituted in 1905. It was formed by taking the *zamīndāri* estates of Bramhapurī, and those of Chānda with the exception of Ahiri, together with 1,457 square miles of the *khālsa* or land held in ordinary proprietary right, from the east of the Chānda and Bramhapurī *tahsīls*. The area of the *tahsīl* is 3,708 square miles, and the population of this area in 1901 was 155,214, compared with 207,728 in 1891. The density is 42 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 1,098 inhabited villages. Its head-quarters are at Garhchirolī, a village of 2,077 inhabitants, 51 miles from Chānda town by road. The *tahsīl* includes 19 *zamīndāri* estates, lying to the east and south of the Waingangā river, with an area of 2,251 square miles and a population of 82,221 persons. Most of this area is hilly and thickly forested, the area of forest in the *zamīndāris* being 900 square miles. Outside the *zamīndāri* estates there are 849 square miles of Government forest. The land revenue demand in 1903–4 for the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was approximately Rs. 41,000.

Bhāndak.—Village in the Warorā *tahsīl* of Chānda District, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 7′ N. and 79° 7′ E., 12 miles from Warorā station on the Chānda road. It has been suggested that Bhāndak was the capital of the old Hindu kingdom of Vākātaka or Berār, but the names are not connected, and no inscriptions of the Vākātaka rulers have been found here. The numerous ruined temples and fragments of sculpture and squared stones show that it must at one time have been a great city. The most famous temple at present is that of Badarī Nāg,

or the snake temple, the object of worship being a *nāg* or cobra, which is said to make its appearance on all public occasions. The temple itself is modern and has been reconstructed from older materials, many old sculptures being built into the walls. To the east of the village near the main road is a tank containing an island, which is connected with the mainland by an old Hindu bridge constructed of massive columns in two rows, with heavy beams laid along their tops to form a roadway. The bridge is 136 feet long and 7 feet broad. About a mile and a half to the south-west of Bhāndak, in the hill of Bījāsan, is a very curiously planned Buddhist cave. A long gallery is driven straight into the hill to a distance of 71 feet, and at the end of it is a shrine containing a colossal Buddha seated on a bench. Two galleries lead off at right angles to the first, and each of these has also its shrine and statue. From traces of inscriptions on the walls the date of the original excavations may be inferred to have been as early as the second or third century A. D. In Gaorāra, a mile and a half to the south of Bhāndak, are the remains of several temples, and caves and niches hollowed out in the rock for the reception of statues. The principal temple is called Jobnāsa's palace, and the two chief caves are called his big and little fowl-houses.

Chānda Town.—Head-quarters of the District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 19° 57′ N. and 78° 58′ E., at an angle formed by the junction of the Erai and Jharpat rivers, and 28 miles from Warorā, on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1901), 17,803. The name is a corruption of Chandrapur, 'the city of the moon.' Chānda was the capital of a Gond dynasty, whose supremacy lasted from the twelfth to the eighteenth century. The appearance of the city from without is most picturesque. Dense forest stretches to the north and east. On the south rise the blue ranges of Mānikdrug, and westward opens a cultivated rolling country with distant hills. The town itself is surrounded by a continuous line of wall, five and a half miles in circuit, with crenellated parapets and broad ramparts, traced in re-entering angles and semi-circular bastions. The thickness of the walls is 10 feet, and for the greater part of the circuit they are in a good state of preservation. They were built by the Gond king Hir Sāh, and repaired by the Marāthās. They now form an efficient protection against the floods which are not infrequently caused by the Erai river, when driven back by the swollen current of the Wardhā at their confluence. The walls are pierced by four gateways and five wickets. The most

noticeable buildings in the town are some temples, and the tombs of the later Gond kings. The principal temples are those of Achaleshwara, Mahākāli, and Murlīdhar. They are generally plain with pyramidal roofs in steps, the only exception being the fane of Achaleshwara, the walls of which are covered with a multitude of small sculptured panels. The tombs are plain substantial buildings, rather heavy in appearance. Outside the walls is the large Ramāla tank, from which water is brought into the town in pipes constructed under Gond rule. Along the pipes at intervals are round towers, or *hathnīs*, at which the water can be drawn off and carried into small reservoirs. Outside the town to the south-east, and lying on the ground, is a collection of colossal figures of Hindu deities carved from the basalt rock and left lying *in situ*. The largest of them measures 26 by 18 by 3 feet. They are known as Rayappā's idols; and the story is that they were prepared by a wealthy Komati named Rayappā, who intended to build a gigantic temple to Siva, but died before he could complete it. The greater part of the space within the walls is vacant, and some of it is sown with crops, though suburbs have grown up outside.

Chānda was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 32,000. The income has largely expanded in recent years, and in 1903–4 amounted to Rs. 48,000, chiefly derived from octroi. The trade of the town is now much less than it was, but Chānda is still the commercial centre of the District. It has also several hand industries, among which may be mentioned cloth-weaving either of silk or of cotton with silk borders, dyeing, the manufacture of ornamental slippers, gold and silver work of a peculiar pattern, bamboo-work, and carpentering. A large annual fair is held just outside the Achaleshwara gate in the month of April, the total attendance at which is estimated at 100,000 persons. Cattle, tobacco, and garlic are the principal articles sold. Chānda possesses a high school, supported by private subscription, with 63 pupils, an English middle and various other schools, and two dispensaries. The Episcopal Church of Scotland has established a mission station here, and maintains three schools.

Mārkandī.—Village in the Garhchirolī *tahsīl* of Chānda District, Central Provinces, situated in 19° 41′ N. and 79° 50′ E., 56 miles south-east of Chānda town by road. Population (1901), 211. The village stands on a bluff overlooking the Waingangā, and is remarkable for an extremely picturesque

group of temples. They are enclosed in a quadrangle 196 feet by 118, and there are about twenty of different sizes and in different stages of preservation. They are richly and elaborately sculptured, and are assigned to the tenth and eleventh centuries. The wall surrounding them is of a primitive type, and probably much older. The largest and most elaborate temple is that of Mārkanda Rishi. There are also some curious square pillars sculptured with figures of soldiers, and probably more ancient than the temples. A religious fair is held annually at Mārkandī in February and March lasting for about a month. The great day of the fair is the Sivarātri festival, when the attendance amounts to 10,000 persons.

Warorā Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Chānda District, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 14′ N. and 79° 1′ E., two miles from the Wardhā river. It is the terminus of the Wardhā-Warorā branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 45 miles from Wardhā and 517 from Bombay. An extension of the railway from Warorā to a point beyond Chānda has recently been begun. Population (1901), 10,626. Warorā was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the ten years ending 1901 averaged Rs. 22,000. In 1903–4 the income had increased to Rs. 32,000, principally derived from octroi. Water is obtained from a large tank outside the town, and carried into it in pipes. Warorā is the station at which the bulk of the produce of Chānda District, and much of that of the adjoining Yeotmāl District of Berār, reaches the railway. A Government colliery was worked here from 1871 to 1906. In 1903–4 the output was 117,000 tons of coal, raised at a cost of Rs. 2-15-4 per ton. The earnings for the year amounted to 5·4 lakhs and the expenditure to 3·7 lakhs, giving a return of $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the capital expenditure. About 1,000 miners were employed. The coal was sold to the railway, and to the local mills and factories. In connexion with the colliery a fire-clay brick and tile factory was established, the output of which in 1904 was valued at Rs. 42,000. A ginning and pressing factory belonging to the Empress Mills, Nāgpur, with 14 gins and one press, was opened in 1903. It has a capital of about a lakh of rupees, and dealt with cotton to the value of Rs. 55,000 in the first year of working. Another cotton press and three ginning factories have since been constructed. Warorā possesses English middle and girls' schools, and two dispensaries.

Boundaries, con-

Bhandāra District.—District in the Nāgpur Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 40′ and 21° 47′ N.

and 79° 27′ and 80° 40′ E., in the eastern portion of the Nāgpur plain, with an area of 3,965 square miles. It is separated from Chhattīsgarh by the Sātpurā range on the north, and by a line of broken hill and forest country further south. Through a narrow gap of plain between the hills on the north and south pass the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway and the great eastern road. Bhandāra is bounded on the north by Bālāghāt and Seonī Districts; on the west by Nāgpur; on the south by Chānda; and on the east by the Feudatory States of Chhuīkhadān, Khairāgarh, and Nāndgaon. The surface is generally open and level, being broken only in a few places by isolated ranges of hills. The lowest and most northerly of these is the Ambāgarh range, an outlier of the Sātpurās, which enters from the west, and trending in a north-easterly direction cuts off the valley of the Bāwanthari river from the rest of the District. Soon after entering Bhandāra the ridge is crowned by the fortress of Ambāgarh. In the centre, running from the east of Bhandāra town to the railway near Gondiā, is the Gaikhurī range, a cluster of low peaks surrounded by irregular forest country. The points of Lendejharī (1,499 feet) and Jāmri (1,712 feet) are the highest. Just west of Bhandāra the Ballāhi range, consisting of a few sandstone hills capped with granite and overhanging the eastern road, forms a prominent feature in the landscape. Lastly, in the south-east lie the Nawegaon or Partābgarh hills, the highest part of the District. Among them, under a seven-peaked mass, locally known as the 'hill of the seven sisters,' is the Nawegaon lake, and on an outlying bluff of this cluster stood the old fortress of Partābgarh (1,842 feet). The peak of Nishāni is 2,314 feet high. In the extreme south-west near Paunī there is an isolated clump of hills, and in the north-east the Sātpurā range takes in the corner of the District formed by the Sālekasā and Darekasā *zamīndāris*. The main river is the Waingangā and practically all the others are its tributaries. The Waingangā enters the District on the north-east, and flows diagonally across until it passes within a mile of Bhandāra town on the south-west, its valley lying between the Ambāgarh and Gaikhurī ranges. After this it flows to the south, forming for a short distance the boundary between Bhandāra and Nāgpur, and then turning south-east again cuts off the small and fertile strip of Paunī from the rest of the District. Its width in the District is generally 500 yards, but opposite Paunī it broadens to half a mile. During the open season it consists only of a small and sluggish stream everywhere fordable, and containing at intervals deep pools full

figuration, and hill and river systems.

of fine fish. The principal affluent of the Waingangā is the Bāgh, which rises in the Chīchgarh *zamīndāri*, south-east of the Partābgarh range, and flows almost due north for a course of 70 miles, forming for some distance the boundary between Bhandāra and Bālāghāt. It joins the Waingangā near Benī, being crossed by the new Sātpurā railway just before its junction. Another tributary on the left bank is the Chūlband, which rises in the Gaikhurī range and flows south, crossing the great eastern road at Saongī, where it is spanned by a large bridge. The Pāngoli rises near Tumsar, and joins the Bāgh near Kāmtha on the border of the District. On the right bank the tributaries are the Chandan, which flows past Wārāseonī and Rāmpailī and meets the Waingangā near Saonrī, the Bāwanthari flowing down from Seonī District and joining it at Mowār, and the Sūr coming east from Nāgpur to a junction not far from Bhandāra town. The valleys of the Waingangā and Bāgh have been called the 'lake region' of Nāgpur, from the number of large artificial tanks constructed for irrigation which form a distinctive feature of the country. The most important are those of Nawegaon, with an area of 5 square miles, and Seonī, with a circumference of more than 7 miles, while smaller tanks are counted by thousands. These large tanks have been constructed by members of the Kohlī caste, and, though built without technical engineering knowledge, form an enduring monument to the natural ability and industry of these enterprising cultivators. The larger tanks are irregular lakes, their banks formed by rugged hills, covered with low forest that fringes the waters, while dykes connecting the projecting spurs from the hills are thrown athwart the hollows. The Sākoli *tahsīl* or southern portion of the District consists largely of hill and forest. Elsewhere the country is for the most part open and closely cultivated, and the expanses of rice and wheat-fields thickly studded with fruit-bearing trees and broken by low, flat-topped hills present a pleasant and prosperous appearance.

Geology. The main formation in the valley of the Waingangā consists of basalt and other igneous rocks, while in the eastern and southern part of the District it changes to metamorphic sandstone. Beds of laterite are common in all parts. In the isolated ridges and hills round Bhandāra town a close-grained sandstone is found which makes a good building stone.

Botany. The forests generally cover and surround the hill ranges, but beyond the Partābgarh range a broad belt of jungle extends from Owāra and Amgaon in the north, round the eastern and

southern border of the District, to the Chūlband. Teak is found on the higher hills, and bamboos abound. The other timber trees are *sāj* (*Terminālia tomentosa*), *lendiā* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), and *bījāsāl* or *beulā* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*). Much of the *zamīndārī* forest consists of *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), a tree of very little value. *Mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*) is abundant in the open country, and the usual fruit-bearing and sacred trees surround the villages. The grasses called *kusal* and *ghonār* are principally used for thatching, and *musyāl* for fodder. *Kāns* (*Saccharum spontaneum*) sometimes invades the wheat-fields.

Fauna.

Bison occur in the Gaikhurī and Partābgarh ranges, and instances have been known of wild buffalo entering the District from the south. Tigers and leopards are found in most of the forests. Snipe and duck are fairly plentiful, and large fish are obtained in the deeper reaches of the Waingangā and in the Nawegaon lake.

Climate and temperature.

The climate is slightly cooler than that of Nāgpur, and the highest temperature in the hot season is usually not more than 112°. The nights, if the sky is clear, are nearly always cool. In winter the nights are cold, though it never actually freezes. Malarial fever is prevalent from August to the end of the year, especially in the south and east. Severe epidemics of cholera usually follow years of scanty rainfall.

Rainfall.

The annual rainfall averages 55 inches; the Tirorā *tahsīl*, situated in the open country to the north, gets a smaller rainfall than Bhandāra and suffers most in years of drought.

History.

Nothing is known of the early history of the District, except for a vague tradition that at one period it was held by Gaolī kings. In the seventeenth century the open country in the north was included in the territories of the Deogarh Gond dynasty, and the fort at Ambāgarh seems to have been built by the Pathān governor who held the Dongartāl estate in Seonī under the Gond Rājā, Bakht Buland. The eastern and southern portions of the District were at this time covered with continuous forest; but the fact that some of the *zamīndārs* formerly held deeds granted by the Garhā-Mandlā dynasty shows that these territories were nominally under their jurisdiction, while the present *zamīndār* of Chīchgarh holds a patent from the Chānda kings. In 1743 Bhandāra, with the rest of the Deogarh territories, became part of the Marāthā kingdom of Nāgpur, but was at first governed by *kamaishdārs* or subordinate revenue officials who were controlled from Nāgpur, and whose charges, ten in number, were assigned as apanages of

different officers of the court. The present town of Bhandāra was constituted the District head-quarters in 1820, when a European officer was appointed as Superintendent under the temporary administration of Sir Richard Jenkins. Soon after the Marāthā accession, a Kunbī *pātel*, who had rendered some services to Chimnāji Bhonsla on his expedition to Cuttack, received as a reward a grant of authority over the eastern part of the District, with instructions to clear the forest and bring it under cultivation. This grant led to the rise of the *zamīndāri* family of Kāmtha, which by 1818 had extended its jurisdiction over 1,000 square miles of territory, comprising about fourteen of what are now the *zamīndāri* estates of Bhandāra and Bālāghāt, the ancestors of the present *zamīndārs* having held their estates in subordination to the Kāmtha house. In 1818 Chimnā Pātel, the *zamīndār*, rose in support of Appa Sāhib, took the Marāthā governor of Lānji prisoner, and garrisoned a number of the existing forts with his retainers. A small expedition was dispatched against him from Nāgpur under Captain Gordon, which, after a successful engagement with four hundred of the *zamīndār's* levies at the village of Nowargaon, stormed Kāmtha and took Chimnā Pātel prisoner. The Kāmtha territories were made over to the Lodhī *zamīndār* of Warad, who had afforded assistance to the British and whose descendants still hold the *zamīndāri*. Some years afterwards the *zamīndāri* of Kirnāpur, now in Bālāghāt, was conferred on the deposed Kāmtha family. The subsequent history of Bhandāra has been the same as that of the Nāgpur kingdom, and on the death of Raghujī III, the last Rājā, in 1853, it became British territory. During the Mutiny the peace of the District was undisturbed. In 1867 the Lānji tract and several of the *zamīndāris* were taken from Bhandāra to form part of the new Bālāghāt District.

Archaeology. An old cromlech and stone pillars are to be seen at Tillotā Khairī, and some remains of massive stone buildings at Padmāpur near Amgaon. Old temples, most of them of the kind called Hemādpanti, built without mortar, are found at Adyāl, Chakahetī, Korambī, and Pinglai, a suburb of Bhandāra town. There are a number of forts, the principal being Ambāgarh, constructed by the Muhammadan governor of Seonī; Chandpur and Bhandāra, traditionally ascribed to the Gaolīs; Sangarhī and Partābgarh, built by the Gonds; and Paunī, constructed by the Marāthās. The fort of Ambāgarh was used as a prison by the Marāthās, and it is said that criminals were sent there to be poisoned by being compelled

to drink the stagnant water of the inner well. This fort and also that of Paunī were held against the British in Appa Sāhib's rebellion of 1818, and were assaulted and carried by storm.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 683,779; (1891) 742,850; (1901) 663,062. Between 1881 and 1891 the increase was somewhat smaller than the Provincial average, partly owing to emigration to Nāgpur and Berār. During the last decade, there was some emigration to Wardhā and Berār, and the District suffered from partial failures of crops in 1895 and 1896, being very severely affected by famine in both 1897 and 1900. The density of population is 167 persons per square mile. Under favourable circumstances the District could probably support with ease a density of more than 200. There are three towns—BHANDĀRA, PAUNĪ, and TUMSAR—and 1,635 inhabited villages. Villages in Bhandāra are generally of a comparatively large size, the proportion with 500 inhabitants or more being the highest in the Province. The principal statistics of population in 1901 are shown below:—

Tahsil.	Area in square miles.	Number of		Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
		Towns.	Villages.				
Bhandāra . .	1,088	3	507	204,153	187	− 11·0	6,254
Tirorā . .	1,328	...	571	291,514	220	− 12·9	6,256
Sākoli . .	1,549	...	557	167,395	108	− 6·5	4,236
District total	3,965	3	1,635	663,062	167	− 10·7	16,746

The statistics of language show that 77½ per cent. of the population speak Marāthī, and 13½ per cent. Hindī and Urdū; of the remainder, 56,000 persons, or 79 per cent. of the total number of Gonds, speak Gondī. About 88 per cent. of the population are Hindus, and 10 per cent. Animists. Muhammadans number nearly 13,000, of whom 3,000 live in towns. Until recently there were a considerable number of Muhammadan cotton-cleaners, but with the introduction of mill-spun thread this industry has declined.

Their castes and occupations.

The principal castes of landholders are Marāthā Brāhmans (6,000), who possess 340 out of 1,917 revenue villages, Ponwārs (63,000) with nearly 300, Kunbīs (79,000) with about 200, Lodhīs (18,000) with 166, and Kohlīs (11,000) with 136.

The Marāthā Brāhmans obtained their villages under the Bhonsla dynasty, when they were employed as revenue officials, and either assumed the management of villages or made them over to their relations. The three great cultivating castes are Ponwārs, Kunbīs, and Kohlīs, the Ponwārs being traditionally skilful in growing rice, Kunbīs with spring crops, and Kohlīs with sugar-cane. The skill of the Ponwārs at irrigation is proverbial, and it is said of them that they can cause water to flow up a hill. The Kunbīs are dull and heavy, with no thought beyond their wheat and their bullocks. The Kohlīs live chiefly in the Chandpur tract of Bhandāra and the Sākoli *tahsīl*. They are not so prosperous as they formerly were, when Kohlī *pātels* built the great tanks already mentioned. The Lodhīs (18,000) are not important numerically, but they hold some fine estates, notably the *zamīndāri* of Kāmtha with an income of over a lakh of rupees. Gonds number 70,000, or about 10½ per cent. of the population, and Halbās 17,000. Several of the *zamīndārs* belong to each of these castes, the Gonds being generally seriously involved, and the Halbās somewhat less so, though they are not often prosperous. The Gonds suffered severely in the famines. The menial weaving and labouring caste of Mehrās is represented by 118,000 persons, or nearly 18 per cent. of the population. About 72 per cent. of the whole population are shown as dependent on agriculture.

Christian missions. Christians number 319, including 286 natives, of whom the majority belong to the United Free Church of Scotland Mission, which has been established in Bhandāra since 1882, and maintains a hospital, an orphanage, and schools for boys and girls. A branch of the American Pentecostal Baptist Mission has recently been opened at Gondā.

General agricultural conditions. About 53 per cent. of the soil of the District is that called *morand*, or black and nearly black soil mixed with limestone pebbles or sand. The best black soil or *kanhār* occupies 4½ per cent. and is alluvial, being found in the tracts bordering on the Waingangā, especially round Paunī, where the Waingangā takes a sudden turn, and the deposit of detritus has increased. Farther east, yellow sandy soil, which gives a large return to irrigation, generally predominates, covering 31 per cent. of the whole cultivated area. The quantity of inferior land is therefore comparatively small.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops. Of the total area, 1,479 square miles, or 37 per cent., are comprised in the 28 *zamīndāri* estates, to which it has been held that the custom of primogeniture does not apply, while

95 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue by members of the Bhonsla family, and 3,000 acres have been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules. The balance is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The chief statistics of cultivation in 1903-4 are as follows, areas being in square miles:—

Tahsil.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Bhandāra . .	1,088	483	35	298	204
Tirorā . . .	1,328	657	40	475	88
Sākoli . . .	1,549	356	53	749	240
Total	3,965	1,496	128	1,522	532

A large quantity of waste land therefore still remains, and as very little inferior soil has been brought under the plough, it would appear that there must be considerable scope for extension of cultivation. Rice occupies 628 square miles, *jowār* 158, wheat 135, gram 70, linseed 116, and pulses 254. In recent years wheat has to some extent been supplanted by *jowār*, and while the area under rice has considerably fallen off, this has only to a small extent been counterbalanced by an increase in *kodon*. About four-fifths of all the rice grown is transplanted and the balance is sown broadcast. Wheat is grown principally in the Paunī, Tumsar, and Rāmpailī tracts, and small embankments are often constructed for wheat-fields, especially when rice is grown as a rotation crop with wheat. *Jowār* is frequently sown as a spring crop in Bhandāra, as the rains are too heavy to allow it to succeed as an autumn crop. Linseed, gram, and the pulse *tiurā* (*Lathyrus sativus*) are grown as second crops in rice-fields. Sugar-cane was formerly an important crop in Bhandāra, but the area under it has decreased in recent years, and is now only about 1,500 acres or less than a third of the former total. Ginger, oranges, and plantains are grown in the villages of Jām and Andhārgaon and sent to Nāgpur.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

The practice of growing second crops in rice-fields and of irrigating rice has grown up since 1864. In a favourable year second crops are grown on as large an area as 341 square miles. A variety of sugar-cane called *kathai*, which gives only half the usual out-turn of sugar but is easier to cultivate and less liable to damage by wild animals, has been generally adopted in preference to the superior canes. During the decade ending 1904 more than 1½ lakhs was advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act, principally for the construction of irrigation tanks, and nearly 6 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act,

of which 3 lakhs was given out during the scarcity of 1902–3. A considerable proportion of this latter sum was expended in agricultural improvements.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

No good cattle are bred in the District, except in the small forest tract to the north of the Ambāgarh range where there are professional breeders of the Golar caste. The herds from here are taken to Baihar for grazing during six months of the year. Elsewhere no care is exercised in breeding, and the type produced is poor. Bullocks are imported from the Kānker and Bastar States and from the Sātpurā Districts of Chhindwāra and Seonī for rice cultivation, and from Berār in the spring-crop area. Buffaloes are used for rice cultivation and also for draught. They are not largely bred locally, the young bulls being imported from the northern Districts. They are slightly more expensive than bullocks, and are usually kept in combination with them, and are used for the heavy work of transplantation and harvesting. There are very few sheep, but numbers of goats are bred by ordinary agriculturists both for food and for sacrifice.

Irrigation.

The District of Bhandāra has a larger irrigated area than any other in the Province, as much as 370 square miles receiving an artificial supply of water in a normal year. This represents nearly a quarter of the net area under crop, and nearly half of that under rice, which, with the exception of a few thousand acres of sugar-cane and vegetables, is the only crop to which irrigation is applied. In 1903–4 the irrigated area was 128 square miles. The water for irrigation is accumulated in village tanks of the ordinary kind, and either percolates through the embankment or is drawn off to the fields by channels constructed of earth, from outlets cut in the centre or side of the embankment. A few of the large reservoirs, such as Nawegaon, Seonī, and Siregaon, have rough masonry sluices. A system is also practised of constructing small embankments to hold up water temporarily during the monsoon months; in September and October these are cut, and the water taken on to the rice-fields, while wheat is sown in the bed of the tank. Irrigation is at present almost entirely dependent on a sufficient supply of rain to fill the tanks at some period during the monsoon; and in 1899, when there was a complete failure of the rainfall, only about 4 per cent. of the normal cropped area could be supplied with water. The configuration of the country, and the hill ranges traversing the District, afford a number of favourable sites for large storage reservoirs similar to those already constructed by the people, and several projects of this nature have

been prepared by the Irrigation department. The construction of the Khairbandā tank to protect 4,000 acres is nearly completed.

Forests.

Government forests cover 532 square miles, of which all but 8 are 'reserved' forests. The chief areas are on the Ambāgarh, Gaikhurī, and Partābgarh ranges, and there is a small block to the west of Paunī. The higher levels of the Gaikhurī and Partābgarh hills contain a certain amount of teak. Elsewhere the ordinary mixed species are found. Bamboos are abundant. Most of the revenue comes from timber and bamboos, and the rest from the usual minor forest produce. The total value of forest produce sold in 1903-4 was Rs. 45,000. Besides the Government Reserves, the District contains 946 square miles of tree forest, principally in the *zamīndāris*. Some teak forest is found in Darekasā and Sālekasā.

Minerals.

The manganese ores in the District are now being worked by a European firm, the principal deposits being near Tumsar. About 150 labourers are employed, and the output in 1904 was 8,558 tons. Deposits of iron ore of a superior quality exist in several villages in the Tirorā *tahsīl*, and are worked to a small extent by native artificers. A little gold is obtained by washing in the Sonjharī Dudhī river.

Arts and manufactures.

The weaving of silk-bordered cloths is a substantial industry in Bhandāra, and has not yet been seriously affected by the competition of the mills. The principal centres are Bhandāra town, Paunī, Mohāri, and Andhārgaon, and the total number of persons employed is about 6,000. Fine cotton cloths are woven with coloured silk borders, usually red, and the weavers in Paunī use counts as fine as 80's. The silk thread comes from Assam through Nāgpur ready dyed. Ordinary country cotton cloth is also produced in considerable quantities by Mehrās, who live in large numbers in Tumsar and the surrounding villages. Cotton cloths are dyed with imported materials in a number of villages, about 500 persons being employed in this industry at Benī. At Bhandāra all kinds of brass vessels are made. Stone jars are turned out at Kanerī and cart-wheels at Tumsar. Soft grass matting for bedding is manufactured from a grass called *sukhwāsa*, and bamboo baskets and matting are made in a number of villages.

Commerce.

Rice is the staple export, being sent to Bombay for the foreign trade, and also to Nāgpur and Berār. Wheat, gram, the pulse *urad*, and oilseeds are also exported, these being generally taken by cart from Paunī to Nāgpur. Of the forest produce teak and *beulā* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*), timber and bamboos, and *mahuā*,

myrabolams, hides, and wax are generally exported; and various articles of local manufacture, as brass-ware, silk-bordered cloths, and stone jars, are sent to neighbouring Districts. In the last few years there have been considerable exports of manganese. Cotton piece-goods are imported from the Nāgpur and Bombay mills, and English cloth from both Bombay and Calcutta. Yarn is obtained from the Nāgpur and Hinganghāt mills. Kerosene oil is brought from Bombay, and is now solely used for lighting. Sea-salt also comes from Bombay. Mauritius sugar is principally used. *Gur* or unrefined sugar is both produced locally and imported from Bombay and the United Provinces. A certain amount of *jowār* and the pulse *arhar* is brought into the District for consumption from Berār and Nāgpur. The principal trading stations are Gondiā and Tumsar, and after them Tirorā and Amgaon. Tumsar is the centre for the part of the District north-west of the Waingangā, and for the adjoining tracts of Seonī and Bālāghāt. South of the Waingangā the trade of the Tirorā *tahsīl* on both sides of the railway goes to Tirorā, Gondiā, or Amgaon according to their relative proximity.

Railways and roads.

The Bengal-Nāgpur Railway passes through the northern portion of the District, with a length of 78 miles and ten stations, including Bhandāra, within its borders. The Sātpurā narrow-gauge extension starts north from Gondiā junction, and has a length of 11 miles and one station in the District. The most important roads are the great eastern road running through the south of the District, and the roads from Tumsar to Rāmpailī and Katangī, from Gondiā to Bālāghāt, and from Tirorā to Khairlānji. The length of metalled roads is 136 miles, and of unmetalled roads 259 miles, all of which, except 21 miles of the latter class maintained by the District council, are in charge of the Public Works department, the expenditure on upkeep being Rs. 58,000. There are avenues of trees on 26 miles.

Famine.

The years 1822, 1832, and 1869 are remembered as having been marked by famine from failure of rainfall. After 1869, the year of the Bundelkhand famine, the District prospered until the cycle of bad seasons commencing in 1894. Two years of poor crops were followed by a harvest of less than half the normal in 1895–6, and of one-third of the normal in 1896–7. Severe distress occurred in the latter year, the numbers on relief rising to 43,000 persons, or 6 per cent. of the population, in June, 1897, and the total expenditure being 10 lakhs. Again in 1899–1900 both the rice and wheat harvests were complete failures and famine ensued. About 140,000 persons, or nearly 19 per cent. of the population, were on relief in July, 1900, and

the total expenditure was 26 lakhs. In both these famines, besides improvements to communications, large numbers of tanks were constructed and repaired. In 1902 there was again a very poor rice crop and some local relief was given, tank works also being undertaken by the Irrigation department.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner usually has a staff of three Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into three *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The Forest officer is generally a member of the Provincial service. The Executive Engineer of the Bhandāra Public Works division, comprising Bhandāra and Bālāghāt Districts, is stationed at Bhandāra town.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and a Subordinate Judge, and a Munsif at each *tahsīl*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nāgpur Division has jurisdiction in Bhandāra. There are benches of honorary magistrates at Bhandāra town, Rāmpailī, and Amgaon. Suits brought for the use of water for irrigation are a noticeable feature of the civil litigation. Heinous crimes are somewhat numerous, murders committed with an axe being a comparatively common offence. Cattle thefts are also frequent.

Land revenue administration.

Owing to large changes in the area of the District, the old figures of the revenue demand cannot usefully be compared with the present ones. Under Marāthā administration short-term settlements were the rule. The farm of a certain area was given to an official called a *māmlatdār*, generally a court favourite, who made himself responsible for the revenue. Each village had a *pātel* or headman, who acted as its representative and engaged for the revenue demand, which rose and fell according to the circumstances of the year. The demand was distributed over the fields of the village, each of which had a number representing its proportionate value. The *pātel* had no proprietary right, but his office was generally hereditary, descending not necessarily to the eldest son, but to the most capable member of the family. The tenants also had no legal status, but were seldom ejected so long as they paid their rents, more especially as the supply of land was in excess of the number of cultivators to till it. The result of the system was, however, that the *māmlatdārs*, who were usually Marāthā Brāhmans, managed to get a large number of villages into their own hands and those of their relations, and when proprietary rights were conferred by the British Government they thus became hereditary landowners. After the acquisition of

the District in 1853, short-term settlements were continued for a few years. Preparations for the first regular survey were commenced in 1858, and a thirty years' settlement was completed in 1867, the demand then fixed being 4·57 lakhs on the area now constituting the District. During the currency of this settlement the District prospered, the price of agricultural produce rose greatly on the construction of the railway, and cultivation expanded. The District was resettled in the years 1894-9, and the revenue was raised to 6·04 lakhs, being equivalent to an increase of 38 per cent. in the *khālsa* and 69 per cent. in the *zamīndāri* estates. The average revenue incidence per cultivated acre is R. 0-10-11 (maximum Rs. 1-3-1, minimum R. 0-5-4), while the corresponding rental incidence is R. 0-15-4 (maximum Rs. 1-3-9, minimum R. 0-5-5). The collections of land and total revenue in recent years are shown below, in thousands of rupees:—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue . .	4,02	4,08	2,77	5,66
Total revenue . .	7,59	8,41	5,57	8,87

Local boards and municipalities. The management of local affairs, outside municipal areas, is entrusted to a District council and three local boards, each having jurisdiction over one *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903-4 was Rs. 61,000, while the expenditure on education was Rs. 24,000 and on public works Rs. 17,000. BHANDĀRA, TUMSAR, and PAUNĪ are municipal towns.

Police and jails. The force under the District Superintendent of police consists of 352 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, besides 2,116 village watchmen for 1,638 inhabited villages. There is a District jail with accommodation for 126 prisoners, including 11 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 70.

Education. In respect of education Bhandāra is neither particularly advanced nor backward, 2·5 per cent. of the population (5·2 males and 0·1 females) being able to read and write. Statistics of the number of pupils under instruction are as follows: (1880-1) 3,899; (1890-1) 7,630; (1900-1) 7,682; (1903-4) 8,226, including 275 girls. The schools comprise 2 English middle schools at Bhandāra, with 5 vernacular middle schools and 129 primary schools, besides 2 private schools. One of the Bhandāra English schools is managed by the Free Church Mission. Two high school classes have been opened at the expense of a private resident in the new English

school, but have not yet been recognized by the Allahābād University. There are six girls' schools, three in Bhandāra, and one each at Paunī, Sanīchari, and Tumsar. A separate school for low-caste Dher boys is maintained at Paunī. The expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 46,000, the income from fees being Rs. 4,500.

Hospitals and dispensaries. The District has 8 dispensaries, with accommodation for 59 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 93,106, of whom 323 were in-patients, and 2,111 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 12,000, of which the greater part was provided from Provincial and Local funds.

Vaccination. Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal towns of Bhandāra, Tumsar, and Paunī. The percentage of successful vaccinations in 1903-4 was 45 per 1,000 of the population, being above the Provincial average.

A. B. Napier, *Settlement Report*, 1902. A District Gazetteer is being prepared.]

Bhandāra Tahsīl.—Western *tahsīl* of the District of the same name, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 40′ and 21° 43′ N. and 79° 27′ and 79° 55′ E., with an area of 1,088 square miles. The population in 1901 was 204,153, compared with 229,287 in 1891. The density is 187 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains three towns—BHANDĀRA (population, 14,023), the *tahsīl* and District head-quarters, PAUNĪ (9,366), and TUMSAR (8,116)—and 507 inhabited villages. Excluding 204 square miles of Government forest, 63 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The demand for land revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 2,09,000, and for cesses Rs. 20,000. The *tahsīl* occupies a narrow strip of land along the west of the District, consisting mainly of open level country bordering the Waingangā, a considerable area being covered with fertile black soil. The cultivated area in 1903-4 was 483 square miles, of which 35 were irrigated.

Tirorā.—Northern *tahsīl* of Bhandāra District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 10′ and 21° 47′ N. and 79° 43′ and 80° 40′ E., with an area of 1,328 square miles. The population in 1901 was 291,514, compared with 334,579 in 1891. The density is 220 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 571 inhabited villages. Tirorā, the head-quarters, is a village of 3,640 inhabitants, 30 miles from Bhandāra town, on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. Excluding 88 square miles of Government forest, 56 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The demand for land revenue in 1903-4 was Rs. 1,46,000, and for cesses

Rs. 22,000. The *tahsīl* includes 11 *zamīndāri* estates covering an area of 769 square miles, of which 163 consist of forest. It consists roughly of an open level tract of rice-growing land, with forests towards the eastern border. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 657 square miles, of which 40 were irrigated.

Sākoli.—Southern *tahsīl* of Bhandāra District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 41′ and 21° 17′ N. and 79° 43′ and 80° 34′ E., with an area of 1,549 square miles. The population in 1901 was 167,395, compared with 178,984 in 1891. The density is 108 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 557 inhabited villages. Its head-quarters are at Sākoli, a village of 2,019 inhabitants, 24 miles from Bhandāra town by road. Excluding 240 square miles of Government forest, only 32 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The demand for land revenue in 1903–4 was Rs. 1,25,000, and for cesses Rs. 12,000. The *tahsīl* includes 17 *zamīndāri* estates with a total area of 710 square miles, of which 406 consist of forest. It is a rice-growing tract broken up by small ranges of hills, and contains the large irrigation tanks for which Bhandāra is noted. The cultivated area in 1903–4 was 356 square miles, of which 53 were irrigated.

Bhandāra Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 10′ N. and 79° 40′ E., on the Waingangā river, 7 miles from a station on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. Population (1901), 14,023. The town contains an old fort said to have been built by the Gaolīs, which is now used as a jail. Bhandāra was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 15,000. By 1903–4 the income had more than doubled and amounted to Rs. 35,000, the chief sources being octroi and water rate. The water-supply is obtained from the Waingangā. Three filtration wells have been constructed in the bed of the river, and water is raised from them to a service reservoir near the jail. The works were opened in 1900, the cost of the scheme being 1·84 lakhs and the annual maintenance charges about Rs. 6,000. The principal industry of Bhandāra is brass-working, and its name is said to be derived from *bhāna*, 'a brass dish.' Cotton cloth is also woven, but the trade of the place is not considerable. The educational institutions comprise a private high school supported by contributions from the residents, an English middle school, and several other boys' and girls' schools. Three dispensaries are maintained, including mission and police hospitals. The United Free Church of Scotland estab-

lished a mission station here in 1882, and now supports an orphanage, a dispensary, and several schools.

Gondiā.—Village in the Tirorā *tahsīl* of Bhandāra District, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 28′ N. and 80° 13′ E., on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 81 miles from Nāgpur and 601 from Bombay. Gondiā is the junction for the new Sātpurā narrow-gauge railway which runs to Jubbulpore across the Sātpurā plateau. Population (1901), 4,457. It is one of the two leading goods stations in Bhandāra District, receiving the produce of the surrounding area of Bhandāra and of the lowlands of the adjoining Bālāghāt District. A large weekly grain market is held here. The greater part of the town stands on Government land, and the ground rents realized are credited to a fund for sanitary purposes, which is supplemented by a house rate. A branch station of the American Pentecostal Mission at Rāj-Nāndgaon has recently been established. Gondiā contains Hindī and Marāthī primary schools, and a dispensary.

Paunī.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Bhandāra, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 48′ N. and 79° 39′ E., on the Waingangā river, 32 miles south of Bhandāra town by road. Population (1901), 9,366. Some bathing *ghāts* or flights of stone steps have been constructed on the bank of the Waingangā, and the town contains a fort which was stormed by the British in 1818. Paunī was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 4,200. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 4,500, mainly derived from a house tax. The staple industry of the town is the manufacture of silk-bordered cloths, and thread of very fine counts is woven. The weavers are, however, not very prosperous. The town stands in the fertile black soil tract called the Paunī Haveli. It contains vernacular middle and girls' schools, a school for low-caste Dher boys and an Urdū school, and also a dispensary.

Tumsar.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Bhandāra, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 23′ N. and 79° 46′ E., on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 27 miles from Bhandāra town and 570 from Bombay. Population (1901), 8,116. The town was constituted a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 5,400. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 4,000, principally derived from a house tax and market dues. Tumsar is an important commercial town, receiving the produce of the north of the District and the adjoining tracts of Seonī and Bālāghāt. A covered market-place has

been constructed and a large weekly grain market is held here. The rice grown in the vicinity of Tumsar has a special reputation. The local handicrafts include cotton-weaving, which is carried on in the town and several adjoining villages, the annual purchases of thread by the weavers being estimated at 3 lakhs. White loin-cloths with red borders are the chief articles woven. Numbers of cart-wheels are also made in Tumsar and exported to Nāgpur and Berār. The town possesses a vernacular middle school, a girls' school, and a dispensary.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Bālāghāt District (= 'above the passes').—District in the Nāgpur Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 19′ and 22° 24′ N. and 79° 39′ and 81° 3′ E., with an area of 3,132 square miles. It is bounded on the north by Mandlā District; on the east by Bilāspur and Drug Districts, and by the Kawardhā and Khairāgarh States; on the south by Bhandāra; and on the west by Seonī. Bālāghāt consists of an upland section of the most easterly portion of the Sātpurā plateau, and of a strip of low country forming part of the valley of the Waingangā, and extending along the southern and western border of the hills. The eastern ridge of the Sātpurās, known as the Maikala range, divides it from the Chhattīsgarh plain. The hills and elevated plateaux, which occupy about two-thirds of the District, extend in the north almost across its entire width, with the exception of a small lowland strip to the north-west consisting of the valley of the Waingangā, here only about ten miles wide, and forming the Mau estate. The greater part of the hilly country is included in the Baihar *tahsīl*, and, outside the Feudatory States, is perhaps the wildest and most backward area in the Province. It consists mainly of the three table-lands of Paraswāra, Baihar, and Raigarh, from west to east. The Raigarh plateau, about 2,000 feet high, is a small open stretch of undulating country covered with high grass, and surrounded by thickly wooded hills, the highest peaks of which rise to 2,900 feet. It is drained by the Hālon and Kashmīri rivers, and is approached from Baihar by the passes of Bhainsāghāt and Laptī running through dense forest. The main table-land of Baihar, to the west of Raigarh and about 200 feet below it, is also very undulating and covered with thick forest, the soil being generally sandy, and cultivation consisting principally of the minor autumn millets, as the slopes are frequently too steep to permit of the growth of rice. The valley is watered by the Banjār and its tributary the Tannor, which passes Baihar. Farther west and separated from the

Banjār valley by a long ridge lies the Paraswāra plateau, slightly lower than that of Baihar and somewhat more fertile. It is watered by the Kanhār, a tributary of the Banjār, and on the west is bounded by another range of hills leading down to the Wainganga valley. The drainage of this part of the District is north to the Narbadā. South of the main plateau the hilly country consists of small and scattered table-lands, with a southerly inclination and gradually narrowing in from the west. The hills are for the most part covered with forests belonging to *zamīndāri* estates. Along the base of the outer spurs of hills lies the plain country of the District forming part of the valley of the Waingangā, narrow and closely shut in by the hills to the north, and gradually opening out on both sides of the river to the south-east and south-west. The general elevation of this part of the District is about 1,000 feet above sea-level. It is watered by the Waingangā and several minor streams, the principal of which are the Bāgh, Ghisrī, Deo, and Son. The Waingangā flows nearly due south through Bālāghāt, its width varying from 200 yards in the upper reaches to 400 lower down. Its bed is generally rocky. The Bāgh rises in the Chīchgarh hills of Bhandāra and flows north and north-west, forming for a short distance the boundary between Bālāghāt and Bhandāra. It is crossed by the Sātpurā railway just before its junction with the Waingangā on the border of the District. The Ghisrī, Deo, and Son rise in the eastern range of hills, and join the Bāgh after a short and rapid course. On the west of the Waingangā the low country, broken in places by isolated hills, lies along the eastern and southern border of the portion of the Sātpurā range belonging to Seonī District, a triangular strip of which abuts into Bālāghāt. The Sarāthi is the only stream of any consequence on this side. The lowland country is well watered and studded with fruit trees, and is principally devoted to the growth of rice.

Gneissic and metamorphic rocks are the main formations, and there are a few outliers of Deccan trap in the north. The gneissic rocks belong partly to a highly metamorphosed sedimentary and volcanic series, resembling the Dhārwār schists of Southern India and known locally as the Chilpī beds. The metamorphic or transition rocks consist of quartzites, shales, and limestones. Geology.

The extensive forests of the District are mainly of the mixed character usual in Central India. Along the Waingangā river are scattered patches of teak (*Tectona grandis*), and towards the north-east *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) is the dominant tree. In Botany.

various parts of the District fine clumps of bamboos occur. Besides *sāl*, which is plentiful, and teak, which is always scarce or local, the principal trees to be met with are *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *beulā* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*), *shīsham* (*Dalbergia Sissoo*), *dhaurā* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *palās* (*Butea frondosa*), *aonlā* (*Phyllanthus Emblica*), *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*), *lendiā* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *moyen* (*Odina Wodier*), with species of *Diospyros*, *Schleichera*, *Schrebera*, *Soymida*, *Boswellia*, *Bombax*, *Garuga*, *Buchanania*, and *Stereospermum*. Shrubs and small trees include *Grewia*, *Zizyphus*, *Nyctanthes*, *Flueggea*, *Cleistanthus*, *Woodfordia*, and *Casearia*.

Fauna. The usual kinds of game, including tigers, leopards, and deer, are fairly plentiful. Bison are found in the Sonāwāni forests, in Bījāgarh, and in the north of the plateau. Herds of *nīlgai* roam on the Raigarh plateau, and swamp deer are met with in the Toplā Reserve. There are a few herds of antelopes on the Baihar plateau. In the Hirri forests are some wild cattle, descended from tame ones let loose, which do serious damage to the crops but are not killed. Wild duck are fairly plentiful in the tanks in the open country, but snipe are less frequent.

Climate. The uplands of Baihar are subject to sharp frosts in December and January, which cause much injury to the foliage of trees and the cold-season crops. The climate of Bālāghāt is that of the Nāgpur plain, but it is especially damp in the monsoon season. As usual in rice country, malaria is prevalent in the autumn months. The Baihar *tahsīl*, owing to its heavy rainfall and dense forest, is notoriously unhealthy from August to December, and the mortality from malaria has largely contributed to retard immigration. The particles of mica suspended in the water also tend to produce gastritis.

Rainfall. The annual rainfall at Bālāghāt averages 62 inches, exceeding that of any other District in the Province. The District owes its copious rainfall to the fact that it is encircled by hills on the north and east, on which the rain-clouds brought up by the south-west monsoon impinge. Until within the last few years the rainfall has seldom been deficient.

History. Bālāghāt, as it now stands, has only recently been constituted. The Baihar *tahsīl* formerly belonged to Mandlā District, and formed part of the dominions of the Gond dynasty of Garhā Mandlā. The eastern part of it was for some time assigned to the chief of Kawardhā as a reward for service. Soon after the beginning of the nineteenth century the greater part of the *tahsīl* was laid waste by an inroad of the Gond Rānī of Rāmgarh in

Mandlā, and at the time of cession in 1818 the country was sparsely populated. Of the low country, the old *parganas* of Hattā, Dhansuā, and Lānji were included in Mandlā, while the tract on the west of the Waingangā belonged to the Deogarh kingdom, which was annexed by the Bhonsla rulers of Nāgpur in 1743. In 1798 the Bhonslas also obtained the Mandlā territories, and most of what is now the Bālāghāt *tahsīl* was then administered from Bhandāra. At this period the greater part of it was covered with forest, and several of the present *zamīndāri* estates originated in grants of territory made by the Marāthās for the purpose of opening up the country. In 1862, when the Baihar *tahsīl*, then attached to Mandlā, was being settled, the attention of Government was directed to its natural resources, and it was recommended that special measures should be taken to colonize it. With this object sanction was obtained in 1867 to the formation of a new District, consisting of the Baihar *tahsīl* and a fringe of open country below the hills which was taken from Bhandāra and Seonī Districts, and from which was to be obtained a supply of colonists for the upland plateaux. The task of reclaiming from waste the hitherto almost unknown plateau of Baihar was entrusted to Colonel Bloomfield, for many years Deputy-Commissioner of Bālāghāt District, and under his management some progress was made towards settling the large expanse of fertile waste land with sturdy Ponwār peasantry. But owing principally to the unhealthiness of the climate, and partly also to changes in Government policy and the neglect of local officials, no very great or permanent advance has been made; and the tract remains one of the poorest in the Province. Very recently fresh measures have been taken for the systematic encouragement of immigration. A scheme for liberal advances for the reclamation of land has been sanctioned, the construction of a number of tanks undertaken, and other inducements offered to immigrants of the more skilful agricultural castes.

Archaeology.

The archaeological remains are not of much importance. Baihar contains a number of stone tanks and ruined temples, some built in the Hemādpanti style without cement. The fort of Lānji was built by the Gonds early in the eighteenth century, and was afterwards the head-quarters of a *kamaishdār* under the Marāthās. Human sacrifices are said to have been formerly offered at the temple of the Lanjki Devī, the tutelary deity of the place. About a mile from the town, in the bamboo forest, stands the temple of Koteshwar, at which a small annual fair is held. At Mau, in the middle of a tank, about

a mile from the village, a granite platform has been constructed on which is the image of a Nāga and a pillar. Other remains are at Bīsāpur near Katāngī, Sonkhār, Bhīmlat, and Sawarjhiri near Bhīri.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 340,614; (1891) 383,363; (1901) 326,521. Up to 1891 the District prospered and the rate of increase was about equal to the Provincial average. During the last decade the decrease of population has been nearly 57,000 persons, or about 15 per cent. The District was very severely affected by famine in both 1896 and 1897, and the Bālāghāt *tahsīl* also in 1900, and the decrease of population is mainly to be attributed to this cause. About 11,000 persons emigrated to Assam during the last decade. The District contains one town, BĀLĀGHĀT, and 1,075 inhabited villages. The principal statistics of population based on the Census of 1901 are shown below:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of		Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
		Towns.	Villages.				
Bālāghāt	1,388	1	582	239,141	172	−17.6	5,543
Baihar	1,744	...	493	86,230	49	− 6.1	1,485
District total	3,132	1	1,075	325,371	104	−14.9	7,028

In 1904, 11 villages with 1,150 inhabitants were transferred from Bālāghāt to Mandlā, while a tract of 'reserved' forest was received from that District. The revised totals of area and population are given above. About 75 per cent. of the population are Hindus, 22 per cent. Animists, and 6,454 persons are Muhammadans. The eastern portions of the District have been largely populated by immigration from Chhattīsgarh, as is shown by the fact that nearly 145,000 persons, or 44 per cent. of the total, speak the Chhattīsgarhi dialect. Of the balance, the language of 84,342 is shown as Marāthī and of 54,168 as Gondī. The Ponwārs, numbering 41,106, have a special dialect, a mixture of Hindī and Marāthī, and the Marārs another of somewhat the same nature.

Their castes and occupations.

The principal landowning castes are Ponwārs, Gonds, and Lodhīs. Ponwārs (41,000) are the best cultivators and are especially skilful at the irrigation of rice. Many Ponwārs also are lessees of villages in the *zamīndāri* estates and headmen

ryotwāri villages in the Baihar *tahsīl*. The Lodhīs (18,000) are partly immigrants from Chhattīsgarh, and partly from Northern India. Gonds (73,000) constitute 32 per cent. of the population, and Baigās and Binjhāls (6,000) 2 per cent. The Gonds are found in both the Bālāghāt and Baihar *tahsīls*, and those of the open country are gradually adopting settled methods of cultivation in imitation of their Hindu neighbours. Those of the Baihar *tahsīl* are still backward and migratory. The Pardhāns are the priests of the Gonds and take the clothes and jewels of the dead, and the Ojhās are bird-catchers and tattooers. The Gonds are polygamous in Bālāghāt, and the number of a man's wives gives an indication of his wealth and dignity, as many as six being by no means unusual. On market days a Gond goes to the bazar with all his wives walking behind him to show his importance. The Baigās are also priests of the Gonds, and are employed to lay the ghosts of persons who have been killed by tigers. They are one of the wildest of the tribes and are incapable of sustained manual labour, though they are clever at transplanting rice-plants. This is the only field-work which they usually do for hire. They collect forest produce and exchange it for small quantities of grain, and will subsist for weeks together on roots and fruits, in the collection of which they display the greatest skill. Since the system of *bewar* or shifting cultivation has been stopped in Government forests, the Baigās are hard put to it to make a living. An attempt was made to teach them to adopt regular cultivation by settling them in five villages under the direct supervision of the revenue officials of Baihar, but it has been given up as a failure. Some idea of the difficulty to be encountered may be gained from the fact that Baigā tenants, if left unwatched, would dig up the grain which they had themselves sown and eat it. They are skilled woodmen and some are employed as forest guards. They also catch fish and make bamboo matting to a small extent. Both Gonds and Baigās suffered severely in the famines. Farm-servants are recruited from all castes, but are principally Gowāras. In the Baihar *tahsīl* are a number of Golars (1,200) and Banjārās (1,000) who are professional cattle graziers. About 72 per cent. of the total population were shown as dependent on agriculture in 1901.

Christian missions.

Christians number 219, including 191 natives, most of whom belong to the Bālāghāt Mission. This institution is unsectarian, and its efforts are principally directed to the conversion of the Gonds and Baigās. It was founded by the Rev. J. Lampard, who still directs it; and it has four stations at Bālāghāt,

Baihar, Nikum, and Khursīpār, with schools at each station, an orphanage, and an industrial farm.

General agricultural conditions.

The quality of the soil in the plains is as a rule much superior to that of the plateau. It is of greater depth and more fertile, while in Baihar the mixture of particles of mica with the soil also reduces its productive capacity. The alluvial land on the banks of the Son and other rivers in the eastern parts of the lowlands is the most fertile of all, but its area is insignificant. Next to this the richest and deepest soil is found in the strip about ten miles wide extending along the left bank of the Waingangā, from the Dhansuā hills to its junction with the Bāgh. The plains of Dhansuā and Hattā *parganas* are rich in black and brown soil of superior quality and good depth; and there is also good brown soil in the north Karolā tract to the west of the Waingangā, and in Bhadrā *zamīndāri* to the extreme south-east. In the hilly country and the Mau valley the land is generally medium or poor, dark soil being found only in patches in the Mau valley and in the shallow depressions, which form a characteristic feature of the plateaux. The Raigarh plateau is the most fertile portion of the Baihar *tahsīl*, but the tract is very thinly populated, and much of the land unreclaimed. The good quality of the soil, however, renders this area rich in pasturage. In the hill villages of the *zamīndāris* the land is, as a rule, very poor, being largely intermixed with stones and gravel or coarse sand.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

Of the total area, 923 square miles, or 29 per cent., are included in the 12 *zamīndāri* estates. There are about 230 *ryotwāri* villages with an area of 370 square miles, of which 90 are cultivated and pay a revenue of Rs. 20,000, while 4,000 acres have been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules. The remaining area is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. The following table gives the chief statistics of cultivation in 1903-4, with areas in square miles:—

Tahsīl.	Total.	Cultivated.	Irrigated.	Cultivable waste.	Forests.
Bālāghāt . .	1,388	561	24	429	308
Baihar. . .	1,744	220	3	467	664
Total .	3,132	781	27	896	972

Not much of the fertile land in the low country remains unoccupied, but elsewhere there is considerable scope for extension of cultivation. Rice occupies 366 square miles, *kodon* and *kutkī* 137, wheat 23, *urad* 75, linseed 57, gram 34, and *tiurā* 36

square miles. Rice is by far the most important crop, and in sowing it the system of transplantation is usually practised. *Kodon*, the staple food of the Gonds, is grown chiefly in the hilly tracts, and on the plateaux of Baihar and Raigarh. Tobacco is a very profitable crop in the alluvial soil of the Son valley, where it covers rather less than 1,000 acres. Castor is sown in rotation with tobacco. Sugar-cane was grown on 1,300 acres in 1903–4.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

Between 1867 and 1895 the area taken up for cultivation increased by 31 per cent., and that actually cropped by 19 per cent. The area on which two crops were grown in the year and the number of tanks constructed for irrigation largely increased during the same period. The famines of 1897 and 1900, however, caused a decline in the cropped area, which had not been recovered by 1903–4. Manure is now more largely applied to the rice crop, and cattle and small stock are sometimes penned at night in the fields during the summer months. During the decade ending 1903–4, about Rs. 72,000 was advanced by Government under the Land Improvement Loans Act, and nearly 7½ lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

Cattle are bred principally in the Baihar *tahsīl*, where there are excellent grazing grounds. The ordinary cattle are small and not particularly strong. The best bullocks are bred by Golars and are sold as yearlings at fairly good prices. Bulls are reserved for breeding by the owners of any considerable number of cows. Buffaloes are used for the heavy work of hauling the rice plants from the nurseries at the time of transplantation. They are not bred to any considerable extent in Bālāghāt, but young bulls are imported from the northern Districts. The grazing grounds are generally adequate, and those of the Baihar *tahsīl* are resorted to by large herds of cattle from the surrounding Districts during the hot months. There are no members of the professional shepherd caste, but goats are bred by ordinary landholders for food and for sacrifice. Pigs are reared for the same purposes in the Baihar *tahsīl*. Very few sheep are kept. The principal cattle markets are at Wārāseonī and Lālburrā in the plain country, and at Bhīri on the plateau.

Irrigation.

About 150 square miles can ordinarily be irrigated, but in 1903–4 the irrigated area was only 27 square miles owing to the unfavourable rainfall. With the exception of about 7 square miles under sugar-cane and garden crops, this is practically all rice land. Nearly 40 per cent. of the rice area, or 25 per cent. of the total area, can be watered in a normal year. There are

nearly 3,000 tanks and about 4,000 wells, the latter being generally used for garden crops and sugar-cane. Numerous tanks have been constructed by Government agency in the Baihar *tahsīl*, and plans for much larger works to protect a large proportion of the District have been prepared.

Forests. The Government forests cover an area of 972 square miles, mainly on the hilly ranges of Baihar, with blocks on the banks of the Wainganga and to the south-east. Teak grows in patches in the Sonāwāni and Paraswāra ranges. The Baihar and Raigarh ranges contain pure *sāl* forest of excellent quality, and *sāl* mixed with other species, while the lowland blocks contain only inferior timber trees. Till recently the difficulties of transport have been too great to permit of any substantial revenue being obtained from timber, but the opening of the Sātpurā railway should greatly increase the sales. The forest revenue in 1903-4 amounted to Rs. 2,09,000, of which Rs. 1,60,000 was obtained from sales of timber and Rs. 15,000 from grazing. The large revenue from timber was principally due to a contract for the supply of sleepers. The principal minor products are lac and myrabolams. The *zamīndāri* estates contain 401 square miles of forest.

Minerals. Deposits of iron ore occur in the Bhadrā, Kinhī, and Bhānpur *zamīndāris*. Iron is smelted by native smiths by indigenous methods, but the output is small. Manganese deposits have been found near Bālāghāt town, and are being worked by a European company. The out-turn in 1904 was 10,323 tons, and about 300 labourers are employed. There are other numerous deposits of manganese which are as yet unworked. Copper ore exists in the hill of Melānjkundī. Mica is plentiful in the Baihar *tahsīl*, but the plates are not sufficiently large to be marketable. Bauxite, used for the manufacture of aluminium, is also found in the Baihar *tahsīl*. Small amounts of gold are obtained by washing in the Son and Deo rivers.

Arts and manufactures. The principal local industry is the weaving of coarse cotton cloth, the chief centres being Wārāseonī and Lālburrā with the villages round them. Lālburrā *dhotīs* are well-known, and are exported to the other Sātpurā Districts and to Jubbulpore. Lingā, Borgaon, and Hattā also contain considerable colonies of weavers. In the Wārāseonī tract a number of Otāris make ornaments and vessels from brass by moulding, while the Kasārs of Wārāseonī and Hattā make ornaments of bell metal. Glass bangles are manufactured at Lānji from imported Indian glass. At Baihar a variety of small tin vessels, such as lamps,

sieves, betel boxes, and watering-pots, are made from empty kerosene oil-tins and sometimes sent to Mandlā.

Rice and the pulse *urad* are the principal exports. The former is sent mainly to Berār, and the latter to Bombay for the foreign trade. Tobacco is supplied to Chhattīsgarh from the Bījāgarh *zamīndāri*. *Ghī* manufactured from the milk of both cows and buffaloes is exported from the Baihar *tahsīl*. Of forest produce, teak is sent from the Sonāwāni and Chāregaon forests to Nāgpur and Kamptee. Bamboos are exported to Kamptee and Seonī. Hides and horns, myrabolams, lac, gum, and other forest products are largely exported. The leaves of the *tendū* tree (*Diospyros tomentosa*) are collected for the manufacture of leaf-plates and the outside covering of *bīris* or native cigarettes. Mill-woven cloth is brought from Nāgpur and Hinganghāt, and small quantities of English cloth from Bombay. The salt used is *golandāzi* or sea-salt from Bombay. *Gur* or unrefined sugar comes from Mirzāpur, while refined sugar is chiefly the produce of Mauritius. *Jowār*, wheat, and gram are received from the neighbouring Sātpurā Districts, the local supply being inadequate, and the pulse *arhar* is obtained from Berār. Brass vessels are imported from Mandlā, Bhandāra, Jubbulpore, and the United Provinces. The grain trade is principally in the hands of Mārwāri Banīas. For timber, contracts are taken for Government and *zamīndāri* forests by Muhammadan merchants from Kamptee and Raipur. Commerce.

The Sātpurā extension of the Bengal-Nāgpur railway from Gondiā to Jubbulpore, which has recently been constructed, passes through the west of the District up the valley of the Wainganga, with a length of 53 miles and six stations within its borders. The length of metalled roads is 15 miles, and of unmetalled roads 208 miles, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 39,000, all these roads being in charge of the Public Works department. There are avenues of trees on only 16 miles. The opening of the railway will naturally effect a material alteration in the existing trade routes. Railways and roads.

There are no reliable records of famine previous to 1868-9, in which year the rains ended abruptly a month before time, and the rice crop in the lowlands failed, leading to acute distress. A series of partial failures of the harvest was followed in 1896-7 by a more serious deficiency, the out-turn of all crops taken together being only about 17 per cent. of normal. The numbers on relief rose to 68,000, or 15 per cent. of the population, in May, 1897, and the total expenditure was 13 lakhs. Famine.

In 1899–1900 the rice crop again failed, the out-turn being 23 per cent. of a normal harvest. Relief was begun in September, 1899, and continued till November, 1900, the highest number relieved being 135,000, or 35 per cent. of the population, in August, and the total expenditure amounting to 26 lakhs. During these famines most of the existing roads were constructed and the embankment of the Sātpurā railway was built. Many tanks were made or repaired by famine loans in 1897 and by grants to landowners in 1900.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner is aided by one Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner. For administrative purposes the District is divided into two *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The Forest officer usually belongs to the Imperial service, and for Public Works the District is included in the charge of the Executive Engineer, Bhandāra Public Works division.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and a Subordinate Judge, and a Munsif at Bālāghāt town. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nāgpur Division has jurisdiction in the District. Cattle-poisoning is a comparatively common form of offence.

Land revenue administration.

The area now constituting Bālāghāt was formerly included in the Districts of SEONĪ and BHANDĀRA, and the land revenue demand was assessed at the thirty years' settlements of those Districts. These expired in 1896–8, when revision was commenced, but it was somewhat delayed by the famines. The revenue demand before revision was Rs. 1,26,000, which was raised to Rs. 1,87,000, or by 48 per cent. The current settlement is for a period of sixteen years, and will expire in 1914. The average incidence of revenue per acre at settlement was R. 0–9–11 (maximum R. 0–15–1, minimum R. 0–2–10), the corresponding figures of rental incidence being average R. 0–15–6 (maximum Rs. 1–11–11, minimum R. 0–3–7). In the Baihar *tahsīl* a summary settlement has been made for seven years without rental enhancement, to allow the tract to recover from the effects of famine. In certain areas temporary remissions and abatements have been given. The collections of land and total revenue in recent years are shown below, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880–1.	1890–1.	1900–1.	1903–4.
Land revenue . .	1,60	1,65	91	2,43
Total revenue . .	3,27	4,55	2,73	6,19

The management of local affairs, outside municipal areas, is entrusted to a District council and three local boards, two for the Bālāghāt *tahsīl* and one for Baihar. The income of the District council in 1903-4 was Rs. 35,000, while the expenditure on education was Rs. 12,000 and on public works Rs. 9,000. BĀLĀGHĀT is a municipal town. Local boards and municipalities.

The force under the District Superintendent of police consists of 247 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, besides 843 village watchmen for 1,076 inhabited towns and villages. There is a District jail, with accommodation for 59 prisoners, including 6 females. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 52. Police and jails.

In respect of education Bālāghāt stands twelfth in the Province, 2·2 per cent. of the population (4·4 males and 0·1 females) being able to read and write. The percentage of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 10. Statistics of the number of pupils under instruction are as follows: (1880-1) 2,033; (1890-1) 2,597; (1900-1) 2,883; (1903-4) 4,663, including 85 girls. The educational institutions comprise an English middle school at Bālāghāt town, 3 vernacular middle schools, and 62 primary schools. There are girls' schools at Bālāghāt and Wārāseonī, and a mixed school for girls and boys at Baihar supported by the Bālāghāt Mission. The expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 17,000, of which Rs. 15,000 was provided from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 1,800 by fees. Education.

The District has 6 dispensaries, with accommodation for 28 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 38,483, of whom 253 were in-patients, and 560 operations were performed. The total expenditure was Rs. 6,800. Hospitals and dispensaries.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal town of Bālāghāt. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903-4 was 31 per 1,000 of the District population. Vaccination.

[J. R. Scott, *Settlement Report*, 1901. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Bālāghāt Tahsīl (*Būrha*).—Southern *tahsīl* of Bālāghāt District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 19′ and 22° 5′ N. and 79° 39′ and 80° 45′ E. In 1901 the area of the *tahsīl* was 1,687 square miles, and its population 249,610 persons. In 1904 a redistribution of territory between the Bālāghāt and Baihar *tahsīls* took place, and the adjusted figures of area and population are 1,388 square miles and 239,141 persons. The population in 1891 of the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was 268,108. The density is 172 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, BĀLĀGHĀT (population, 6,223), the

head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District, and 582 inhabited villages. Excluding 308 square miles of Government forest, 56 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The demand for land revenue in 1903–4 was Rs. 2,16,000, and for cesses Rs. 24,000. The *tahsīl* consists of a rich lowland rice-growing tract on both sides of the Waingangā river, and of a triangular block of hills to the north-east of the plain. It includes five complete *zamīndāri* estates and parts of three others. The total area of these estates is 439 square miles, of which 267 are forest.

Baihar (*Behir*).—Northern *tahsīl* of Bālāghāt District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 32′ and 22° 24′ N. and 80° 2′ and 80° 3′ E. In 1901 its area was 1,452 square miles, and its population 76,911 persons. In 1904 a redistribution of territory between the Bālāghāt and Baihar *tahsīls* took place, and also a small interchange of area between the Baihar *tahsīl* and Mandlā District. The adjusted figures of area and population are 1,744 square miles and 86,230 persons. The population in 1891 of the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was 91,860. The density is 49 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 493 inhabited villages. Its head-quarters are at Baihar, a village of 1,298 inhabitants, 41 miles from Bālāghāt town by road. Excluding 664 square miles of Government forest, 26 per cent. of the available area is occupied for cultivation. The demand for land revenue on the present area in 1903–4 was Rs. 34,000, and for cesses Rs. 4,000. The *tahsīl* consists of a series of elevated plateaux, divided and surrounded by hills, and covered for the most part with forest. Large areas of waste land are fit for cultivation, and their colonization on the *ryotwāri* system is in progress. The *tahsīl* includes one whole *zamīndāri* estate and parts of three others, with a total area of 484 square miles, of which 132 are forest.

Bālāghāt Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 49′ N. and 80° 12′ E. Population (1901), 6,223. When the District of Bālāghāt was constituted in 1867, the small village of Būrha was selected as its head-quarters, and the name has now been officially changed to correspond with that of the District, which means 'above the passes.' So far as the town is concerned, however, the name is a misnomer, as it lies below the hills. Bālāghāt is a station on the new Sātpurā narrow-gauge line, 25 miles from Gondiā junction and 626 from Bombay. It is situated two miles from the Waingangā river; and between the town and river lie about 1,200 acres of small forest through

which roads have been laid out, while a large tank has been built on the outskirts of the town. Bālāghāt was created a municipality in 1877. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 5,000. In 1903-4 they were Rs. 7,000, the chief source of income being a house tax. A manganese mine is now being worked near the town. Bālāghāt has a certain amount of trade, but no manufactures. It contains an English middle school, a girls' school, and a dispensary.

CHHATTĪSGARH DIVISION

Chhattīsgarh Division.—The eastern Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 19° 50′ and 23° 7′ N. and 80° 43′ and 83° 38′ E., with an area of 21,240 square miles. It consists of the plain forming the upper basin of the Mahānadī river, hemmed in by ranges of hills on the north, west, and south. The Division contains three Districts, as shown below:—

District.	Area in square miles.	Population in 1901.	Land revenue and cesses, 1903-4, in thousands of rupees.
Drug	3,807	628,885	5,64
Raipur	9,831	1,096,858	6,88
Bilāspur	7,602	917,240	4,07
Total	21,240	2,642,983	25,60

Up to 1905, the Division also included SAMBALPUR DISTRICT, which was then transferred to Bengal. The District of Drug was constituted in 1906 from portions of the old Raipur and Bilāspur Districts, which were too large for effective management. The name Chhattīsgarh, or 'thirty-six forts,' was formerly applied to the territories of the Haihaivansi dynasty of Ratanpur, which comprised the greater part of the present Districts of Drug, Raipur, and Bilāspur. Far removed from the routes of armies, and protected from invasion or disturbance by the precipitous ranges which fringe the plain on three sides, the Haihaivansi kingdom continued to enjoy a peaceful and uneventful existence until the middle of the eighteenth century; while the people, isolated and almost barred from intercourse with the outside world, have developed or retained peculiarities of dress, manners, and language which distinguish them from the residents of adjoining tracts, to whom they are known as Chhattīsgarhis. The Chhattīsgarhi dialect resembles the form of Hindī spoken in Oudh. The people are generally held to be characterized by a lack of intelligence, by backwardness in their methods of agriculture, and by a more primitive habit of life than their neighbours. The head-quarters of the Commissioner

are at RAIPUR TOWN. The population of the Division in 1881 was 2,495,655, and increased to 2,924,663 in 1891, or by 17 per cent. The Census of 1901 showed a decrease to 2,642,983, or by 10 per cent., the Chhattīsgarh plain having been visited by two severe famines during the previous decade. In 1901 Hindus constituted 90 per cent. of the total population and Animists 8 per cent., while there were only 30,000 Musalmāns, 1,100 Jains, and 5,800 Christians, of whom 400 were Europeans and Eurasians. The density of population is 124 persons per square mile, compared with 112 for British Districts of the Province. It contains 7 towns including DRUG, the head-quarters of the new Drug District, and 9,356 inhabited villages. The marked absence of towns is to be explained by the fact that the population is almost solely agricultural, and until within comparatively recent years there has been very little trade. RAIPUR (32,114) is the chief commercial centre of the Division, and the only town containing more than 20,000 inhabitants. On the outskirts of the plain and surrounding the British Districts are situated the territories of fourteen Feudatory States, whose administration is controlled by a Political Agent under the supervision of the Commissioner.

Formation of the District.

Drug District.—District in the Chhattīsgarh Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 23′ and 22° N. and 80° 43′ and 82° 2′ E., with an area of 3,807 square miles. The District was constituted in 1906 from portions of Raipur and Bilāspur, which at that time covered an area of 20,000 square miles, and contained a population of 2½ million persons. Drug comprises a portion of the old Mungelī *tahsīl* in the south-west of Bilāspur, the whole of the former Drug *tahsīl*, and parts of the Simgā and Dhamtarī *tahsīls* in the west of Raipur.

Boundaries and physical features.

The District consists of a long strip of land running from north to south, narrowest in the centre, where the head-quarters town is situated, and widening out at the extremities. It is bounded on the north by the Khairāgarh and Kawardhā Feudatory States and Bilāspur District; on the east by Raipur District; on the south by the Kānker State; and on the west by the Khairāgarh and Nāndgaon States and Chānda and Bālāghāt Districts. The greater part of the *khālsa*, or area held by village proprietors, is open undulating country bare of hill or jungle. In the centre and north especially the view from the high gravel ridges extends for miles. Trees are scarce in many parts of the open country. The only Government forest is that in the south of the District, which covers more than 164 square miles. The *zamīndāri* estates situated on the

north-west and south-west include some hilly country and contain 325 square miles of forest. The Tandulā river flows from south to north and joins the Seonāth flowing west from the Nāndgaon State, a little south of Drug. The Seonāth then turns north and flows in this direction, passing by Drug and Dhamdā. Its principal tributaries from the east are the Pathrā and Barrā, and from the west the Sombarsa and Amner. The climate of Drug is exceptionally hot. The annual rainfall averages about $47\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

Population.

In 1901 the population of the area now constituting Drug District was 628,885 persons, compared with 754,548 in 1891, the large decrease being due to the famines of 1897 and 1900. The District has one town, DRUG, and 2,047 inhabited villages. The principal statistics of population, based on the Census of 1901, are shown below:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of		Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
		Towns.	Villages.				
Drug	924	1	483	189,643	205	−15.6	3,124
Bemetāra	1,566	..	874	240,843	154	−17.2	2,997
Sanjāri	1,317	..	690	198,399	151	−17.2	3,938
District total	3,807	1	2,047	628,885	165	−16.7	10,059

The *mālguzāri* or *khālsa* area is very thickly populated.

Agriculture.

A large proportion of the District is covered with rich black soil, while the remainder is the yellow clay and gravel of the Chhattīsgarh plain. In the south the black soil is divided into embanked rice-fields from which second crops are obtained, while in the north wheat and *kodon* are grown in rotation on the same kind of land. The principal crops are rice, wheat, *kodon*, and linseed. In 1902–3 the area occupied for cultivation was about 950 square miles, of which about 850 were under crop. In the south of the District are a number of irrigation tanks.

Communications.

The main line of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway runs through the centre of the District, with stations at Drug and Bhilai. From Drug a road passes through Nankatti, Dhamdā, and Deorbīja to Bemetāra, where it joins the Simgā-Kawardhā road. From Dhamdā a branch runs to Gandai. Other roads are those from Drug to Gundardehī and Dhamtarī and from Arjundā to Rāj-Nāndgaon.

The District contains nine *zamīndāri* estates, with an area of 1,040 square miles and a population of 99,820 persons. *Zamīndāri* estates.

The approximate land revenue in 1902–3 of the area now constituting the District was 4·72 lakhs. Land revenue.

[E. R. K. Blenkinsop, *Settlement Report on Drug Tahsīl*, 1903.]

Drug Tahsīl.—Central *tahsīl* of the new District of the same name, Central Provinces, which was formed in 1906 from portions of Raipur and Bilāspur. The *tahsīl* lies between 20° 51′ and 21° 33′ N. and 81° 6′ and 81° 37′ E. The area of the former Drug *tahsīl* of Raipur was 1,911 square miles, and its population in 1901 was 313,579 persons. In arranging the new District, an area of 614 square miles contained in six *zamīndāri* estates was transferred to the Bemetāra *tahsīl* and another area of 373 square miles to the Sanjāri *tahsīl*, leaving the revised area and population of the Drug *tahsīl* at 924 square miles and 189,643 persons. The population of this area in 1891 had been 224,589 persons. The *tahsīl* contains 483 inhabited villages, and one town, Drug (population, 4,002), the head-quarters of the *tahsīl* and District. The *tahsīl* has practically no Government forest. It consists of an open plain of fertile black soil alternating with sandy soil and gravel, and mainly devoted to the cultivation of rice. The land revenue demand in 1902–3 on the present area was approximately 1·55 lakhs.

Bemetāra.—Northern *tahsīl* of the new Drug District of the Central Provinces, which was constituted in 1906 from portions of Rāipur and Bilāspur. The *tahsīl* lies between 21° 20′ and 22° 0′ N. and 80° 43′ and 82° 2′ E., and contains portions of three former *tahsīls*. A tract of 363 square miles was taken from the west of the Mungelī *tahsīl* of Bilāspur; 614 square miles comprised in six *zamīndāri* estates were transferred from the old Drug *tahsīl*; and 589 square miles were transferred from the Simgā *tahsīl* of Raipur. The Bemetāra *tahsīl* is an irregularly shaped tract, nearly cut in two by the Khairāgarh State. Its area is 1,566 square miles, and the population of the tract now constituting the *tahsīl* was 240,843 persons in 1901, compared with 290,238 in 1891. The density is 154 persons per square mile, and there are 874 inhabited villages. The head-quarters are at Bemetāra, a village of 1,197 inhabitants, 47 miles from Drug town by road. It includes the six *zamīndāri* estates of Sahaspur-Lohāra, Silhetī, Barbaspur, Gandai, Thākurtolā, and Parporī, with a total area of 614 square miles and a population of 48,327 persons. About 308 square miles in the *zamīndāris* are forest,

but there are no Government Reserves. The western portion of the *tahsīl* consists of a fertile and closely cultivated black soil plain, while in the east the *zamīndāri* estates border on the Sātpurā Hills. The demand for land revenue in 1902-3 on the area now forming the *tahsīl* was approximately 1·90 lakhs.

Sanjāri.—Southern *tahsīl* of the new Drug District, Central Provinces, which was constituted in 1906 from portions of Raipur and Bilāspur. The *tahsīl* lies between 20° 23′ and 21° 1′ N. and 80° 48′ and 81° 31′ E. It was formed by taking 373 square miles from the former Drug *tahsīl*, and 944 square miles from the former Dhamtarī *tahsīl* of Raipur. It thus has an area of 1,317 square miles, the population of which in 1901 was 198,399, compared with 239,721 in 1891. The density is 151 persons per square mile, and there are 690 inhabited villages. The head-quarters have been fixed at Balod, a village of 1,228 inhabitants, 55 miles from Drug town by road; but the *tahsīl* was named after another village, Sanjāri, to prevent confusion with the Balodā Bāzār *tahsīl* of Raipur. The *tahsīl* contains 164 square miles of Government forest. It includes the *zamīndāri* estates of Khujjī, Dondī-Lohāra, and Gundardehī, which have an area of 426 square miles and a population of 51,493 persons, and contain more than 200 square miles of forest. The north of the *tahsīl* is an open black soil plain, while tracts of hill and forest extend to the south and west.

Drug Town (*Durga*, 'a fort').—Head-quarters of the new District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 11′ N. and 81° 17′ E., on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 685 miles from Bombay. Population (1901), 4,002. The town contains the ruins of a mud fort said to be of great antiquity, which the Marāthās made the basis of their operations in 1741, when they overran the Chhattīsgarh country. Besides occupying the fort, they formed an entrenched camp on the high ground on which the town stands, and from which a clear view of the surrounding country is to be obtained. Drug is not a municipality, but a small fund is raised for purposes of sanitation. It has a bell-metal industry, and the vessels made are well-known locally. Cotton cloth is also woven, but the weavers have suffered from the competition of the mills. There are some betel-vine gardens in the neighbourhood, and the town contains a vernacular middle school.

Boundaries, con-

Raipur District[1].—A District in the Chhattīsgarh Division

[1] In 1906 the constitution of Raipur District was entirely altered by the formation of the new Drug District, in which the western portion of Raipur,

figuration, and hill and river systems.

of the Central Provinces, lying between 19° 50′ and 21° 53′ N. and 81° 25′ and 83° 38′ E., with an area of 11,724 square miles. The District occupies the southern portion of the Chhattīsgarh plain, or upper basin of the Mahānadī, and includes also tracts of the hilly country surrounding it on all sides except the north. It was the largest District in the Province up to 1906, but since its reconstitution it has a smaller area than Chānda. On the north-western border a narrow strip of the Sātpurā range enters the District, and after a break of open country comprised in the Nāndgaon and Khairāgarh States the hills again appear on the south-west. On the south and west they occupy a much larger area, stretching almost up to the Mahānadī and extending over 5,000 square miles of more or less broken country. The greater part of the hilly tract is included in the three groups of estates known as the north-western, south-western, and south-eastern *zamīndāris*, the third being much the largest and most important. The plain country, covering an area of roughly 5,000 square miles, lies principally to the north-west of the Mahānadī, with a few isolated tracts to the south. The Government forests consist practically of two large blocks in the south and east of the District, but extensive areas in the *zamīndāris* are also covered with jungle. The hills are generally of only moderate elevation, most of the peaks having an altitude of a little over

with an area of 3,444 square miles and a population of 545,235 persons, was included. This area comprised the whole of the Drug *tahsīl* and portions of the Simgā and Dhamtarī *tahsīls*. At the same time an area of 706 square miles, with a population of 99,402 persons, was transferred to Raipur from Bilāspur, the line of the Seonāth and Mahānadī rivers becoming the boundary of the new District. The new Raipur District was divided into the four *tahsīls* of RAIPUR, DHAMTARĪ, MAHĀSAMUND, and BALODĀ BĀZĀR, the old Simgā *tahsīl* being abolished, while Drug was included in the new District of that name. On the transfer of Sambalpur District to Bengal, the Phuljhar *zamīndāri*, with an area of 842 square miles and a population of 102,135 persons, was added to the Mahāsamund *tahsīl*. The area of the reconstituted Raipur District is 9,831 square miles, and the population of that area in 1901 was 1,096,858 persons, compared with 1,125,019 in 1891. The decrease in population between 1891 and 1901 was 2½ per cent. The density is 112 persons per square mile. The District contains three towns—RAIPUR, DHAMTARĪ, and ARANG—and 4,051 inhabited villages. It includes 11 *zamīndāri* estates with a total area of 4,899 square miles, of which 2,382 are forest. Outside the *zamīndāris*, Government forest covers 1,337 square miles. The approximate land revenue demand in 1902–3 on the area now constituting the District was 6.80 lakhs. The article refers almost throughout to Raipur District before its reconstitution, material not being available for the treatment of the new area.

2,000 feet, while only a few rise above 2,500, and one peak between Bindrā-Nawāgarh and Khariār reaches 3,235 feet. The general slope of the plain is to the north-east, Nāndgaon, just beyond the western border, having an elevation of 1,011 feet, and Bhātāpāra, beyond the eastern boundary in Bilāspur, of 888. The two main rivers are the Mahānadī and the Seonāth. The Mahānadī flows in a north-easterly direction for about 125 miles in the District, its principal tributary being the Pairī, which joins it at Rājim. The Sondhāl, which borders the Bindrā-Nawāgarh *zamīndāri* and flows into the Pairī, is also a stream of some importance. The Seonāth enters the District on the south-west, and flows north and east in a very tortuous course for about 125 miles, until after a short bend into Bilāspur it joins the Mahānadī on the border of the two Districts. The Khārūn river, which flows by Raipur town, is a tributary of the Seonāth. The general character of the Mahānadī and the rivers in the east of the District is very different from that of the Seonāth and its tributaries. The latter generally flow over a rocky or gravelly bottom, and consequently retain water for the whole or the greater part of the year; while the beds of the former are wide wastes of sand, almost dry for more than half the year, and at no time, except during high flood, containing much water. The open country is an undulating plain, poorly wooded, especially in the black soil tracts, but thickly peopled and closely cultivated.

Geology. The plains are occupied by Lower Vindhyan rocks, consisting of shales and limestones with subordinate sandstones, resting upon thick, often quartzitic, sandstones, which form low hillocks fringing them on all sides except the north. Beyond these, the bordering hills are composed of gneiss and quartzite, and of sandstone rocks intersected with trap dikes. The blue limestone crops out in numerous places on the surface, and is invariably found in the beds of the rivers. The stratum below the subsoil is a soft sandstone shale, covered generally by a layer of laterite gravel; and in many places the shale has been converted into a hard, vitrified sandstone, forming an excellent building material.

Botany. Teak occurs in the western forests of the District, but is never abundant. In the east and south the forest consists of *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), but it is often of a scrubby character. With the *sāl* are associated the usual species of *Woodfordia*, *Indigofera*, *Casearia*, *Phyllanthus*, *Bauhinia*, *Grewia*, *Zizyphus*, *Flueggea*, and other shrubs and small trees. The remaining forests are of the usual Central Provinces type, teak being

associated with *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *lendiā* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *karrā* (*Cleistanthus collinus*), and *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*). *Babūl* (*Acacia arabica*) is very common in the open country. *Mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*) and mango are plentiful in the south of the District, but not so common in the west and north, where in places the country is markedly bare of trees. The heavy climbers include *Butea superba*, *Spatholobus Roxburghii*, and *Milletia auriculata*. The herbaceous vegetation, consisting of grasses and of species of *Compositae*, *Leguminosae*, *Acanthaceae*, and other orders, though conspicuous during the rainy season, withers away in the hot weather.

Fauna. In proportion to their extent the forests are now only sparsely inhabited by game. Buffalo and bison are found in small numbers in the east and south-east. Tigers and leopards are fairly common, but deer of all kinds are rare, and good heads are seldom obtained. Wild dogs are numerous and are very injurious to the game.

Climate. The heat is especially great in the summer months, on account of the red gravel soil and the closeness of rock to the surface. Fever is very prevalent in the autumn, and epidemics of cholera have been frequent. This may be attributed to the universal preference of tank to well water for drinking purposes.

Rainfall. The annual rainfall averages 55 inches. The supply is fairly regular, but its distribution is capricious. It is noticeable that certain tracts of the Simgā *tahsīl*, which have been entirely denuded of forest, appear to be especially liable to a short rainfall.

History. Chhattīsgarh seems to have been inhabited in the earliest times by Bhuiyās and other Mundā races; if so, they were conquered and driven to the hills by the Gonds, by whom the first regular system of government was founded. Traditions describe the Gond conquest of Bindrā-Nawāgarh, and the victories of their heroes over the barbarian giants. It is impossible to say when Raipur became part of the dominions of the ancient Haihaivansi dynasty; but it appears to have been cut off from the Ratanpur kingdom, and separately governed by a younger branch of the reigning family, about the eleventh century. Raipur probably continued from this period to be administered as a separate principality, in subordination to the Ratanpur kingdom, by a younger branch of the Haihaivansi family; but nothing is known of the separate fortunes of the Raipur house until shortly before the invasion of the Marāthās

in the eighteenth century. In 1741 the Marāthā general, Bhāskar Pant, while on his way to attack Bengal, took Ratanpur and annexed the kingdom; and in 1750 Amar Singh, the representative of the younger branch ruling in Raipur, was quietly ousted. Between 1750 and 1818 the country was governed by the Marāthās, whose administration was of the most oppressive kind, having the sole end of extracting the largest possible amount of revenue from the people. Insurrections were frequent, and the eastern tracts of Raipur were laid waste by the incursions of Binjhāls from the neighbouring hills of Sonākhān. Between 1818 and 1830 the Nāgpur territories were administered by the British Resident. From 1830 to 1853 the District was again administered by Marāthā *Sūbahs* on the system organized by the British officers, and on the whole successfully. In 1853 Chhattīsgarh became British territory by lapse, and Bilāspur was separated from Raipur and made a separate District in 1861. During the Mutiny Chhattīsgarh was almost undisturbed. The commencement of disaffection on the part of the native regiment stationed at Raipur was promptly quelled by the three European officers, who hanged the ringleaders on parade with their own hands.

Archaeology.

Archaeological remains are numerous, showing that the early Hindu civilization must have extended over most of the District. Those of ARANG, RĀJIM, and Sirpur are the most important. There are also interesting temples at Sihāwa, Chipti, Deokut, and Balod in the Dhamtarī *tahsīl*, at Khalāri and Narāyanpur in the north-east of the District, and at Deo Balodā and Kunwāra near Raipur town. Some Buddhist remains have been discovered at Drug, Rājim, Sirpur, and Turturiā. The line of one of the most important roads of ancient times may be traced through this part of the country, leading from near Bhāndak, formerly a large city, towards Ganjām and Cuttack.

The people.

The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 1,405,171; (1891) 1,584,427; (1901) 1,440,556. Between 1881 and 1891 the increase was 10 per cent. in the *mālguzāri* area, the decade being generally prosperous, and 24 per cent. in the *zamīndāris*, but the latter figure must be attributed partly to greater accuracy of enumeration. In the last decade the loss of population was 9 per cent., the District having been severely affected in both famines. The District contains three towns—RAIPUR, DHAMTARĪ, and ARANG—and 4,051 inhabited villages. Statistics

of population of the reconstituted District, based on the Census of 1901, are shown below:—

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Raipur . .	1,016	2	493	246,514	243	− 2·6	7,254
Mahāsamund .	5,284	..	2,042	398,075	75	+ 10·5	3,831
Balodā Bāzār .	1,933	..	975	264,063	137	− 17·1	3,603
Dhamtarī .	1,598	1	541	188,206	118	− 2·5	4,433
District total	9,831	3	4,051	1,096,858	112	− 2·5	19,121

Nearly 88 per cent. of the population speak the Chhattīsgarhi dialect of Eastern Hindī, 6 per cent. Oriyā, 4 per cent. Hindī, and rather less than 6 per cent. Marāthī. Only about 8,000 Gonds are returned as speaking their own language. The Oriyā speakers live principally in the Khariār *zamīndāri* adjoining Sambalpur. In 1901, 90 per cent. of the people were Hindus and 8 per cent. Animists. There were rather less than 18,000 Muhammadans, of whom 6,000 live in towns. Members of the Kabīrpanthī sect of Hindus numbered 162,175, and the Satnāmis 224,779 persons. The Kabīrpanthīs are mainly Pankās or Gāndas who have adopted the tenets of the sect, but several other castes also belong to it. The main distinction of a Kabīrpanthī in Chhattīsgarh is that he abstains from meat and liquor. The Satnāmis are practically all Chamārs.

Their castes and occupations.

The most important castes numerically are Chamārs (245,000), forming 17 per cent. of the population, Gonds (216,000) 15 per cent., and Ahīrs or Rāwats (145,000) 10 per cent. The principal landholding castes are Brāhmans (26,000), Kurmīs (66,00), Baniās (5,000), Telis (232,000), and Marāthās (3,000). The Brāhmans are both Marāthā and Chhattīsgarhi. The former are said to have settled in Raipur after the return of Chimnāji Bhonsla's expedition to Cuttack, when they obtained grants of land for their maintenance.

Christian missions.

Christians number 3,449, including 3,294 natives, of whom the large majority belong to the Lutheran Church. There are stations of the German Evangelical Church at Raipur and Bisrāmpur, of the American Mennonite Mission at Dhamtarī, and of the Methodist Episcopal Church at Raipur. A large number of Chamārs have been converted by the Bisrāmpur Mission.

General agricultural conditions.

In the north-west of the *mālguzāri* area, and round Dhamdā and Deorbijā, lies a rich black soil tract, which is well adapted to the growth of wheat and other spring crops, but owing to its undulating surface does not lend itself readily to embankment, and is in consequence relatively unsuitable for rice. In the Dhamtarī, Balod, and Rājim *parganas* the soil is likewise black, but here the country is quite flat, and is therefore all embanked. Rice is the leading crop, and most of the land is double cropped. To the east of the Mahānadī black soil is almost unknown, and yellow and red soils prevail; the surface is fairly even. Ordinarily the amount of land left fallow is very small, consisting of the poorest soil, for which periodical resting fallows are required. Old fallow land was almost unknown at the last regular settlement, though it has increased in recent years. Rice is manured to as large a degree as the cultivator can afford, but rarely any other crop. The silt from the beds of tanks is frequently dug up and placed on the fields, and is of considerable advantage.

Chief agricultural statistics and crops.

Of the total area of the District 50 per cent. is included in the *zamīndāri* estates, 20 square miles have been allotted on the *ryotwāri* system, 106 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue, and 4,340 acres have been sold outright under the Waste Land Rules. The remainder is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. In 1903–4 the classification showed 1,366 square miles of Government forest, 549 square miles not available for cultivation, and 2,440 square miles of cultivable waste other than fallow[1]. The remaining area, amounting to 5,002 square miles or 62 per cent. of the total excluding Government forest, was occupied for cultivation. Except in the *zamīndāri* estates the area of forest land available for cultivation is small. The total cropped area was 4,759 square miles, of which 713 square miles were double cropped. Rice is the staple crop of the District, being grown on 2,022 square miles. Its cultivation is conducted almost wholly on the *biāsi* system: that is, of ploughing up the young plants when they are a few inches high. *Kodon* occupies 985 square miles, wheat 264, the pulses *urad*, *mūng*, and *moth* 531, gram 97, linseed 237, and *til* 157 square miles. Wheat is usually sown in unembanked black soil fields, and if the winter rains fail is frequently damaged by white ants. Though the area under linseed is small in comparison with the total, Raipur is still

[1] From these statistics 2,366 square miles of waste land in the *zamīndāris*, which have not been cadastrally surveyed, are excluded.

one of the most important Districts in the Province for this crop.

Improvements in agricultural practice.

The practice of raising second crops in rice-fields has grown up in the last forty years, double crops being grown on as much as 940 square miles when the autumn rains are favourable. The methods of cultivation have hitherto been very slovenly and backward; but with the rise in the prices of agricultural produce, an improvement is being manifested, and the advantages of manure and irrigation have begun to be appreciated. An experimental farm has been instituted at Raipur by the Agricultural department. During the decade ending 1904 Rs. 47,000 was advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act and 19 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act. A considerable proportion of this latter sum, however, consisted of grants and loans to *mālguzārs* on special terms for the construction or improvement of tanks in the famine of 1900 and the scarcity of 1903.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

The cattle of the District are small and underfed, and no care is exercised in breeding. Animals imported from Nāgpur or Bastar are, as far as possible, used for spring-crop cultivation. Buffaloes are kept only by the *mālguzārs* and better-class tenants. They are especially useful for ploughing the rice-fields when flooded, carting grain, and drawing timber from the forests. They are principally imported from the northern Districts by the caste of Basdewās. Very few ponies are kept, and they are scarcely bred at all. Landowners and tenants who have carts for agriculture use them if they have to make a journey, and others go on foot. Light trotting carts from Nāgpur have been introduced into the Dhamtarī *tahsīl*, but are not much used as yet. The number of goats and sheep is not large in proportion to the size of the District. The former are kept for food, the latter for their wool used in the manufacture of country blankets. Members of the professional shepherd caste are not numerous.

Irrigation.

Irrigation is not at present a feature in the agriculture of the District. In a normal year, until recently, only a little more than 30 square miles received this aid. The statistics for 1903-4 show nearly 15 square miles as irrigated, of which 3 were supplied from tanks and 7 from wells. But in a favourable season 50 square miles can now be irrigated. It is estimated that the tanks constructed during the famine of 1900 afforded protection to an additional area of about 36 square miles. There are now 3,200 tanks in the District, or less than one to each village on an average. The distribution, however,

varies greatly, the number rising to four and five per village in certain tracts. Until recently tanks have generally been constructed primarily to afford a water-supply to the villagers, and have only been used for irrigation when it was essential to save the crops from complete failure. Schemes have been prepared by the Irrigation department for canals in the tracts between the Mahānadī and Khārūn, and the Khārūn and Seonāth, which promise to yield substantial results. There are about 11,000 irrigation wells in the District, most of them temporary, supplying on an average about an acre each. Well-irrigation is practically confined to garden crops and sugar-cane.

Forests.

The Government forests cover 1,366 square miles, or 20 per cent. of the District area, excluding the *zamīndarīs*. Two main types may be distinguished, one consisting of *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), and the other of mixed forest. The *sāl* forests constitute about a quarter of the total, being situated in the east and south. There is at present little demand for produce from them, owing to the difficulties of transport. Bamboos are found mainly in the *sāl* forests; they are cut in the Sihāwa range and floated down the Mahānadī to Dhamtarī. Only a few small patches of teak forest exist. The mixed forest consists of the usual species, *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) and *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*) being the principal timber trees. *Dhāman* (*Grewia vestita*) is found in the *sāl* forests, and is used by the Gonds for the manufacture of bows and spear handles. In 1903-4 the forest revenue amounted to Rs. 48,000.

Minerals.

No mines are worked at present. Iron ores are found in abundance in the western and southern parts of the District, and some of these are very rich. A sample from Dhalli in the Dondī-Lohāra *zamīndāri* yielded on assay nearly 73 per cent. of metallic iron. Copper and lead ores have been found at Chicholī. Lithographic stones of a serviceable kind have been obtained from the Lower Vindhyan rocks. Red ochre is found in the Gandai *zamīndāri*, and chalk in one or two villages near Dhamdā.

Arts and manufactures.

There are no important industries. *Tasar* silk is woven, but to a very much smaller extent than in Bilāspur or Sambalpur. Most of the larger villages contain a number of cotton-weavers belonging to the Pankā, Mehrā, and Koshtā castes, who produce coarse country cloth. Mill-spun thread has entirely supplanted the home-spun article; and cloth woven in Indian mills is rapidly gaining in popularity at the expense of that woven locally, the former being produced in the same patterns as the latter and being cheaper. Ornaments and

vessels of bell-metal are made at Drug, Dhamdā, Nawāpāra, and Raipur, and glass bangles at Simgā, Neorā, and Kurrā. A little iron is smelted by native methods in the Deorī and Dondī-Lohāra *zamīndāris*, but it cannot compete with English iron. Raipur has one factory owned by a Cutchī Muhammadan, which contains four cotton gins and a mill for pressing linseed and castor oil.

Commerce. The most important export is rice, which goes to the northern Districts of the Central Provinces, to Berār, Hyderābād, and Bombay. Wheat, *til*, and linseed are also exported. *Til* oilcake is sent to Berār from the factory at Raipur town. Of forest products, teak, *sāl*, and *bījāsāl* timber are exported in considerable quantities from the *zamīndāris*. Lac is sent to Mirzāpur, and *mahuā* flowers occasionally to Nāgpur and Kamptee for the manufacture of liquor. Myrabolams are exported to Bombay. As in other Districts in the Central Provinces, a considerable trade has recently sprung up in the export of dried meat. Sea-salt from Bombay is generally used, though small quantities are also brought from Ganjām. Sugar comes principally from the Mauritius, that from Mirzāpur being slightly more expensive. *Gur* or unrefined sugar is chiefly imported from Bengal and Bombay, and a small amount is obtained from Bastar. Cotton thread is received principally from the Hinganghāt, Pulgaon, and Badnera mills, and cotton cloth from Cawnpore, Nāgpur, and Nāndgaon. English cloth and metals, such as iron, brass, and copper, are also imported. Brass vessels come from Mirzāpur and Cuttack, and leathern shoes from Cawnpore. Excluding a European firm which has an agency at Raipur town, the grain trade is in the hands of Cutchī Muhammadans. Hardware and stationery are imported and retailed by Bhātiās, while Mārwāri Baniās trade in cloth and thread, and carry on business in money-lending and exchange. Balodā Bāzār near Simgā has a large weekly cattle market. The other leading bazars are at Barondā and Barekel in the Raipur *tahsīl*, Utai, Rānītarai, Arjundah, and Gandai in Drug, Kurud in Dhamtarī, and Neorā in Simgā.

Railways and roads. The direct line of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway passes through the District, with a length of 60 miles and 8 stations within its limits. From Raipur town a branch narrow-gauge line leads to Dhamtarī, distant 46 miles, and from Abhānpur, a station on this line, there is also a branch of 10½ miles to Rājim. The chief routes for cart traffic are the Lawan-Bhātāpāra, Raipur-Khariār, Tildā-Bemetāra, and Dhamtarī roads. The total length of metalled roads in the District is

69 miles, and of unmetalled roads 665 miles; the annual cost of maintenance is Rs. 88,400, practically all the roads being in charge of the Public Works department. There are avenues of trees on 185 miles. The *zamīndāri* estates also contain 109 miles of roads constructed from their private funds.

Famine.

Raipur District has suffered from failures of crops on many occasions. Information about any except the recent famines is of the scantiest, but distress is recorded as having occurred in the years 1828–9, 1834–5, and 1845–6. In 1868–9 the rains failed almost as completely as in 1899–1900. There was severe distress, accompanied by migration and desertion of villages. The famine of 1868–9 was followed by a period of twenty-five years of prosperity, broken only by a partial failure of the rice crop in 1886. In 1895 the monsoon failed prematurely, and there were no cold-weather rains, with the result that both the autumn and spring crops were poor. This was followed in 1896 by a complete cessation of the rains at the end of August, and a total failure of the rice crop, only slightly relieved by a moderate spring harvest on a reduced area. Relief operations extended throughout the year 1897, the numbers rising to over 100,000 persons, or nearly 7 per cent. of the population, at the end of April; and the total expenditure was 18·5 lakhs. The year 1897 was succeeded by two moderate harvests, and in 1899 the monsoon again completely failed, the total out-turn being only one-sixth of the normal. More than 700,000 persons, or 44½ per cent. of the population, were in receipt of some form of assistance in August, 1900, and the total expenditure was 126·5 lakhs. In 1902–3 the rice crop again failed partially, and distress occurred in certain areas of the District. The numbers on relief rose to 60,000 in April, 1903, and the total expenditure was about 5 lakhs.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy Commissioner is aided by four Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into four *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*, while additional *tahsīldārs* have been posted to Raipur and Mahāsamund. The forests are in charge of an officer of the Imperial service.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and two Subordinate Judges, and a Munsif for each of the Raipur, Balodā Bāzār, and Dhamtarī *tahsīls*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Chhattīsgarh Division has jurisdiction in the District, and the *zamīndārs* of Khariār and Fingeshwar have civil powers. Of important civil litigation, suits on mortgage-deeds with condition of foreclosure are noticeably frequent.

The commonest forms of serious crime are cattle-theft and cattle-poisoning by arsenic.

When the country first came temporarily under British administration in 1818, the whole revenue of Chhattīsgarh amounted to Rs. 2,90,000. Under the beneficent rule of the Superintendent, Colonel Agnew, the prosperity of the country rapidly increased, and the revenue, which was then settled annually, rose by 21 per cent. in eight years. On the termination of this period, British officials were replaced by Marāthā *Sūbahs*, but the methods laid down by Colonel Agnew were on the whole adhered to, and prosperity continued. In 1868 the revenue of the District had increased to 3·18 lakhs. The first long-term settlement was made in 1868 for a period of twenty years, and under it the revenue was raised to 5·52 lakhs, still, however, giving an incidence per cultivated acre of only 5 annas 2 pies for the area held in ordinary proprietary right. The extreme lowness of the assessments in Chhattīsgarh may be attributed to the patriarchal system of the Haihaivansi kings, the absence of any outside demand for produce, and the payment of rents in kind, the rents themselves being entirely free from any economic influences, and being regarded as contributions for the support of the central administration. The settlement of 1868 was the first in which the assessment was based on a regular survey, and at this time also proprietary rights were conferred. During its currency a great transformation took place in the conditions of agriculture. The District was brought within reach of the railway, exports of grain rose with a bound, the value of land rapidly increased, and prices doubled. About two-fifths of the *mālguzāri* area, consisting of the Drug *tahsīl*, with parts of the others, was summarily resettled in the years 1884–7, and a regular settlement of the rest of the *mālguzāri* area, with a revision of revenue in the *zamīndāris*, was effected between 1885 and 1889. The term of settlement was fixed at nine or ten years in the summarily settled and at twelve years in the regularly settled tracts, the revenue being raised to 8·61 lakhs, or by 56 per cent. The average rental incidence per acre was R. 0–10–3 (maximum R. 0–14–5, minimum R. 0–3–11) and the corresponding revenue incidence was R. 0–5–8 (maximum R. 0–8–4, minimum R. 0–2–6). Preparations for a fresh regular settlement began in 1896; but owing to famine and serious agricultural deterioration, only the Drug *tahsīl* was resettled for eight years, while summary abatements were proposed in some of the worst affected tracts. A fresh settlement was commenced in 1904. The collections of land

Land revenue administration.

and total revenue in recent years have varied as shown below, in thousands of rupees:—

	1880-1.	1890-1.	1900-1.	1903-4.
Land revenue . .	6,48	8,62	7,68	9,05
Total revenue . .	10,34	15,18	12,76	14,98

Local boards and municipalities. Local affairs outside municipal areas are managed by a District council and six local boards, having jurisdiction over the four *tahsīls* and the eastern and western *zamīndāri* estates respectively. The income of the District council in 1903-4 was Rs. 97,000, while the expenditure on education was Rs. 48,000, on public works Rs. 26,000, and on medical relief Rs. 13,000. RAIPUR and DHAMTARĪ are municipal towns.

Police and jails. The force under the District Superintendent of police consists of 737 officers and men, including a special reserve of 25, and 8 mounted constables, besides 4,340 watchmen for 4,051 inhabited towns and villages. The District possesses a second-class Central jail, with accommodation for 911 prisoners, including 41 female prisoners. The daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 591. The industries carried on in the jail comprise cloth-weaving and the manufacture of mats from aloe fibre.

Education. In respect of education Raipur stands last but two among the Districts of the Province. In 1901 only 3·7 per cent. of the male population could read and write, and only 929 females were returned as literate. The percentage of children under instruction to those of school-going age is 9. Statistics of the number of pupils under instruction are as follows: (1880-1) 14,054; (1890-1) 14,364; (1900-1) 18,766; (1903-4) 18,644, including 2,612 girls. The educational institutions comprise a high school at Raipur town, a Rājkumār College for the sons of Feudatory chiefs and *zamīndārs*, three English middle schools, four vernacular middle schools, and 215 primary schools. The expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 1,06,000, of which Rs. 80,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds, and Rs. 16,000 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries. The District has 12 dispensaries, with accommodation for 125 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 162,653, of whom 1,340 were in-patients, and 2,134 operations were performed. The total expenditure was Rs. 22,000, chiefly met from Provincial and Local funds. Two leper asylums, at Raipur town and Dhamtarī, are supported by allotments from Local funds and charitable subscriptions. They

contain 195 patients, and the annual expenditure is about Rs. 19,000. Raipur has a veterinary dispensary.

Vaccination. Vaccination is compulsory in the municipal town of Raipur. The number of persons successfully vaccinated in 1903–4 was 32 per 1,000 of the District population.

[L. S. Carey, *Settlement Report*, 1891. A District Gazetteer is being prepared.]

Raipur Tahsīl.—*Tahsīl* of the District of the same name, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 56′ and 21° 30′ N. and 81° 28′ and 82° 12′ E. In 1901 the area was 5,802 square miles, and the population 564,102 persons. By the redistribution of areas consequent on the formation of the new Drug District, the constitution of the Raipur *tahsīl* was radically altered; and it is now a small open plain lying between the Mahānadī and the border of Drug District, thickly populated and closely cultivated, with an area of 1,016 square miles. The population of this portion in 1901 was 246,514, compared with 253,058 in 1891, the density being 243 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains two towns, RAIPUR (population, 32,114), the head-quarters of the District and *tahsīl*, and ARANG (6,499); and 493 inhabited villages. The land revenue demand in 1902–3 on the area of the new *tahsīl* was approximately 1·73 lakhs.

Mahāsamund.—*Tahsīl* of Raipur District, Central Provinces, lying between 19° 50′ and 21° 26′ N. and 81° 52′ and 83° 38′ E., constituted in 1906 on the formation of the new Drug District. It contains the greater part of the old Raipur *tahsīl*, including the large *zamīndāri* estates lying to the south and east of the Mahānadī, and the Phuljhar *zamīndāri* transferred from Sambalpur in 1905, together with the Rājim, Raitam, Sirpur, and Khalāri tracts forming the ordinary proprietary area of that *tahsīl* east of the Mahānadī. Mahāsamund contains 2,042 villages, with an area of 5,284 square miles and a population in 1901 of 398,075 persons, compared with 360,305 in 1891. The density is 75 persons per square mile. The head-quarters are at Mahāsamund, a village with 912 inhabitants. The *tahsīl* contains about 239 square miles of Government forest. It includes the *zamīndāri* estates of Fingeshwar, Bindrā-Nawāgarh, Khariār, Narrā, Suarmār, Kauriā, and Phuljhar, with a total area of 4,584 square miles and a population of 301,775 persons. About 2,340 square miles of the *zamīndāri* area are covered with forest or scrub-jungle. The land revenue demand in 1902–3 on the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was approximately Rs. 79,000.

Balodā Bāzār.—*Tahsīl* of Raipur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 15′ and 21° 53′ N. and 81° 38′ and 82° 59′ E., constituted in 1906 on the formation of the new Drug District. It contains the eastern portion of the old Simgā *tahsīl* which was abolished, the Deorī *zamīndāri* from the Raipur *tahsīl* and the Tarengā estate from Bilāspur District, and also that portion of Bilāspur District lying south of the Mahānadī which was transferred to Raipur. The area of the Balodā Bāzār *tahsīl* is 1,933 square miles, and the population in 1901 of the area now constituting it was 264,063, compared with 318,706 in 1891. The density is 137 persons per square mile, and the *tahsīl* contains 975 inhabited villages. The head-quarters are at Balodā Bāzār, a village with 1,858 inhabitants. The *tahsīl* includes 270 square miles of Government forest. It contains the *zamīndāri* estates of Deorī, Bhatgaon, Katgī, and Bilaigarh, with a total area of 315 square miles, of which 45 are forest, and a population of 39,254 persons. The land revenue demand in 1902–3 on the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was approximately 1·92 lakhs. The western portion which was formerly in Simgā is open and populous, while the tract east of the Mahānadī contains some well-cultivated country and also considerable areas of forest.

Dhamtarī Tahsīl.—*Tahsīl* of Raipur District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 1′ and 21° 2′ N. and 81° 25′ and 82° 10′ E. In 1901 the area was 2,542 square miles, and the population 310,996 persons; but in 1906 the western portion of the Balod and Sanjāri tracts, the Jamaruā-Dallī group, and the Dondī-Lohāra *zamīndāris* were transferred to the Sanjāri *tahsīl* of the new Drug District, leaving an area of 1,598 square miles, with a population of 188,206, compared with 192,950 in 1891. The density is 118 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, Dhamtarī (population, 9,151), the head-quarters, and 541 inhabited villages. The land revenue demand in 1902-3 on the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was 1·26 lakhs. The *tahsīl* consists of a long narrow strip extending along the west of the Mahānadī river, open and fertile in the north but covered with hill and forest to the south. It contains 828 square miles of 'reserved' forest.

Arang.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Raipur, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 12′ N. and 81° 59′ E., 22 miles from Raipur town on the Sambalpur road, and 4 miles from the Mahānadī river. Population (1901), 6,499. Arang has the appearance of having once been a large city. A number of fine tanks and mango groves surround the town,

scattered among which are numerous remains of temples and sculptures, chiefly Brāhmanical, but also Jain. The Bāgeshwara temple is visited by all pilgrims on their way to Jagannāth. Arang possesses some trade in grain, and a number of land-holders and money-lenders live in the town.

Dhamtarī Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Raipur District, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 42′ N. and 81° 35′ E., 46 miles south of Raipur town, with which it is connected by a narrow-gauge branch railway, and 2 miles from the Mahānadī river. Population (1901), 9,151. Since the opening of the railway in 1901 the importance of the town has greatly increased. It was created a municipality in 1881. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 3,500. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 3,600, chiefly derived from a house tax. Dhamtarī now receives the exports of produce from the south of Raipur District and from the Bastar and Kānker States. Lac, myrabolams, and hides are the principal exports. A branch of the American Mennonite Mission, which has been established in the town, supports a dispensary, a leper asylum, and an English middle school. The municipal institutions include a dispensary and a vernacular middle school, and there is a Government girls' school.

Raipur Town.—Head-quarters of the Chhattīsgarh Division and of the District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 14′ N. and 81° 39′ E., on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 513 miles from Calcutta and 188 miles from Nāgpur, in an open plain about 4 miles from the Khārūn river. Raipur is the junction for the branch narrow-gauge line to Rājīm and Dhamtarī. It is the sixth largest town in the Province, and had a population in 1901 of 32,114 persons, the increase during the previous decade being 35 per cent. The population at previous enumerations was: (1872) 19,119; (1881) 24,946; (1891) 23,758. In 1901 there were 25,492 Hindus, 5,302 Muhammadans, and 592 Christians, of whom 88 were Europeans and Eurasians. Raipur was made the head-quarters of Chhattīsgarh in 1818. The town is believed to have existed since the ninth century, the old site being to the south-west of the present one and extending to the river. The most ancient building is the fort, said to have been constructed in 1460, on two sides of which are large tanks, while within it are numerous temples of comparatively little interest. The unfinished Dudhādari temple is probably unrivalled as an instance of modern elaborate carving in the Central Provinces, but it is disfigured by sculpture of the most indecent type. A number

of fine tanks have been constructed. Raipur is the headquarters of the Commissioner and Divisional Judge, Chhattīsgarh Division, the Political Agent of the Chhattīsgarh Feudatory States, an Inspector of Schools, a Superintendent of Post Offices, and Executive and Irrigation Engineers. It contains one of the three Central jails in the Province. Raipur was created a municipality in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 1,22,000. In 1903-4 the income was Rs. 99,000, chiefly derived from octroi (Rs. 50,000) and water rate (Rs. 13,000), while conservancy and water-supply constitute the principal items of expenditure, which amounted to Rs. 89,000. Half a battalion of Native infantry was stationed here until 1902. The town is supplied with water from the Khārūn river by the Balrām Dās water-works, which were opened in 1892 and cost 3·38 lakhs, 2 lakhs being contributed by Rājā Balrām Dās of Rāj-Nāndgaon, after whom they are named. Water is drawn from an infiltration gallery in the river, and pumped into a service reservoir in the town 120 feet above the level of the gallery. The maintenance charges amount to Rs. 17,000, of which Rs. 13,000 is realized from a water rate. Raipur is the leading commercial town of Chhattīsgarh, having supplanted Rāj-Nāndgaon, which for many years occupied that position. The local handicrafts include brass-working, lacquering on wood, cloth-weaving, and the manufacture of gold and silver ornaments. In the Central jail cotton cloth is woven, and mats are made from aloe fibre. A combined oil mill and cotton-ginning factory has been opened, which pressed oil to the value of Rs. 90,000 in 1904. There are two printing presses, using English, Hindī, Urdū, and Oriyā types. Among the local institutions are a museum constructed in 1875, a leper asylum supported by private contributions, and an enclosed market-place. The educational and medical institutions comprise a high school with an average attendance of 98 pupils, and a Rājkumār College for the sons of Feudatory chiefs and landholders, besides several other schools, four dispensaries, and a veterinary dispensary.

Rājim.—Village in the *tahsīl* and District of Raipur, Central Provinces, situated in 20° 58′ N. and 81° 53′ E., 27 miles from Raipur town, on a branch of the Raipur-Dhamtarī narrow-gauge railway. The town stands on the right bank of the river Mahānadī at its junction with the Pairī. Population (1901), 4,985. This figure, however, was in excess of the normal number of residents, as it included visitors to the fair.

Rājim contains a fine group of temples dedicated to Vishnu, the principal of which is that of Rājivlochan ('the lotus-eyed'), which is visited by all pilgrims on their way to Jagannāth. It is a handsome building, 59 by 25½ feet, standing on a platform 8 feet high. Another temple of Kuleshwar is situated on a small island in the Mahānadī. A large annual fair takes place at Rājim, lasting for about six weeks in February and March. It is principally a cattle-fair, but much *tasar* silk from Bilāspur is also sold. Rājim is the centre of a considerable amount of general trade, principally in lac and myrabolams. It has a primary school.

Boundaries, configuration, and hill and river systems.

Bilāspur District[1].—District in the Chhattīsgarh Division of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 37′ and 23° 7′ N. and 81° 12′ and 83° 40′ E., with an area of 7,602 square miles. The District occupies the northern portion of the Chhattīsgarh plain or upper basin of the Mahānadī. It is bounded on the south by the open plains of Raipur; and on the east and south-east by the broken country comprised in the Raigarh and Sārangarh States, which divides the Chhattīsgarh and Sambalpur plains. To the north and west the lowlands are hemmed in by the hills constituting the eastern outer wall of the Sātpurās, known locally as the Maikala range. The area of the District was 8,341 square miles up to 1905, and it ranks third in the Province in point of size. A large part of it is held on *zamīndāri* tenure. The rugged peaks and dense forests, which alternating with small elevated plateaux stretch along the north of the District, and are divided among a number of *zāmindāri* estates, cover about 2,000 square miles,

[1] In 1906 the constitution of Bilāspur District was entirely altered by the formation of the new Drug District, to which a tract in the west of the Mungelī *tahsīl*, with an area of 363 square miles and a population of 83,650 persons, was transferred. At the same time part of the District lying south of the Mahānadī and the Tarengā estate, south of the Seonāth, were transferred to Raipur District, this area amounting to 706 square miles with a population of 99,402 persons. On the transfer of Sambalpur District to Bengal in 1905, the Chandarpur-Padampur and Mālkhurdā estates, with an area of 333 square miles and a population of 87,320 persons, were transferred to Bilāspur. The area of the reconstituted Bilāspur District is 7,602 square miles, and the population of this area in 1901 was 917,240 persons, compared with 1,045,096 in 1891. The density is 121 persons per square mile. The District contains three towns—BILĀSPUR, RATANPUR, and MUNGELĪ—and 3,258 inhabited villages. It includes 10 *zamīndāri* estates, with a total area of 4,236 square miles, of which 2,668 are forest. The approximate land revenue in 1902–3 on the area now constituting the District was 3·94 lakhs. This article refers almost throughout to Bilāspur District as it stood before its reconstitution.

or 24 per cent. of the total area. South of these is an open undulating plain closely cultivated, and in the western portion wholly denuded of trees, which contains the majority of the population, and practically all the wealth of the District; while in the small strip cut off by the Mahānadī on the southern border, rising ground and patches of thick forest are again met with. The general inclination of the surface is from north-west to south-east; Bilāspur itself is 848 feet above the sea, and the level of the plain country decreases from about 1,000 feet in the west of the Mungelī *tahsīl* to 750 at the south-eastern extremity of the District. The Pendrā plateau is about 2,000 feet high, while several of the northern peaks have elevations approaching 2,500 feet, and the hill of AMARKANTAK, a few miles across the border of the Rewah State, rises to nearly 3,600 feet. The whole area of the District is included in the drainage system of the Mahānadī, but the river itself only flows near the southern border for a length of about 25 miles. The Seonāth crosses the southern portion of the Bilāspur *tahsīl*, cutting off the Tarengā estate, and joins the Mahānadī at Changorī. Among the tributaries of the Seonāth are the Maniāri, which divides the Bilāspur and Mungelī *tahsīls*, the Arpā and Kurung, which unite in the Arnā, and the Līlāgar, which separates Bilāspur from Jānjgīr. In the east the Hasdo enters the Mātin *zamīndāri* from the Surgujā hills, and after a picturesque course over the rocky gorges of Mātin and Uprorā, flows through the plains of Chāmpa to the Mahānadī. The bed of the Hasdo is noted for its dangerous quicksands.

Geology. The plains are composed mainly of shales and limestones, with subordinate sandstones, belonging to the Lower Vindhyan series. The hills on the western side are formed of metamorphic and sub-metamorphic rocks or slates and quartzites, while those on the eastern and northern sides consist of gneiss and other rocks of the Gondwāna series. The Korbā coal-field is comprised in this District.

Botany. The forests of Bilāspur are largely made up of *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), often, however, of a scrubby character. In the western parts of the District some teak is to be met with, but towards the east this species is comparatively rare. With the *sāl* are associated *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *dhaurā* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *tendū* (*Diospyros tomentosa*), and *shīsham* (*Dalbergia latifolia* and *D. lanceolaria*), while *karrā* (*Cleistanthus collinus*), *tinsā* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), *lendiā* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), and *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*) are also sometimes found,

as well as various species of *Acacia* and *Albizzia*, *Butea frondosa*, *Adina cordifolia*, *Stephegyne*, *Elaeodendron*, *Schleichera trijuga*, *Soymida febrifuga*, *Boswellia serrata*, and various species of *Eugenia*. The undergrowth includes shrubs, such as *Flemingia*, *Woodfordia*, *Flueggea*, *Phyllanthus*, *Grewia*, *Zizyphus*, *Casearia*, *Clerodendron*, and *Vernonia*. The forest climbers are fairly numerous, the most conspicuous being species of *Spatholobus*, *Millettia*, *Combretum*, *Dalbergia volubilis*, and *Butea superba*. In river beds the characteristic shrubs are *Homonoia riparia*, *Tamarix ericoides*, and *Rhabdia viminalis*. There are occasional patches of bamboo, chiefly *Dendrocalamus strictus*.

Fauna. Wild elephants were formerly found in the forests of Mātin and Uprorā in considerable numbers. They have now abandoned these tracts, but stray animals occasionally enter the District, and wander down as far as the Lormī forests when the crops are on the ground. A few buffaloes frequent the southern forests, and bison are met with in the Lormī Reserve. Wolves and swamp deer also occur, besides the usual game animals. There are a few antelope in the west of the District. All the usual game birds are found, but duck and snipe are not common except in a few special localities. The demoiselle crane visits the Mahānadī in the cold season. The rivers are well furnished with numerous kinds of fish, which are a favourite article of food among nearly all classes and are also exported.

Climate and temperature. The climate resembles that of the other plain Districts of the Central Provinces. On the plateau of Pendrā in the north the temperature is some 4° lower on an average. Epidemics of cholera and small-pox occur about once in three years, and leprosy is more common here than in other parts of the Province.

Rainfall. The annual rainfall at Bilāspur town averages 50 inches. That of Mungelī is 5 inches less or 45, while at Jānjgīr it rises to $50\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

History. The traditions of Bilāspur go back to a very early age, and are connected with the history of the Haihaivansi Rājput kings of Ratanpur and Raipur. The earliest prince of this line is said to have been Mayūra Dhwaja, whose adventures with Krishna on the occasion of the theft of Arjun's horse are related in the *Jaiminiya Ashwamedha*. A genealogical table compiled from old documents professes to give a regular succession of kings down to the Marāthā conquest, but the dates are probably not reliable until the sixteenth century.

The territories of the Haihaivansi kings comprised thirty-six *garhs* or forts, and the name Chhattīsgarh was, therefore, applied to them. To each of these forts a tract of country was attached, and they were held on feudal tenure by relatives or subordinate chiefs. Together they embraced the greater part of the modern Districts of Raipur and Bilāspur, and many of them survive in the present *zamīndāri* estates. On the accession of the twentieth Rājā, Sūrdeo, whose date is calculated to be A. D. 1000, the Chhattīsgarh country was divided into two sections; and that king's younger brother established his capital at Raipur with the southern portion of the kingdom under his control, remaining, however, in feudal subordination to the elder brother at Ratanpur. From this period the kingdom of Chhattīsgarh was divided between two ruling houses. In the time of Kalyān Sāhi, the forty-fourth Rājā, who is recorded as having reigned from 1536 to 1573, the influence of Muhammadan sovereignty first extended to the landlocked and isolated region of Chhattīsgarh. This prince is said to have proceeded to Delhi, obtained audience of the emperor Akbar, and returned after eight years with a Muhammadan title. One of the revenue books of this period, which has been preserved, shows that the revenue of the Ratanpur territories including Raipur amounted to 9 lakhs of rupees, a figure which, considering the relative value of money, indicates a high degree of prosperity. The army maintained by Kalyān Sāhi consisted of 14,200 men, of whom 1,000 were cavalry, and 116 elephants. This force was probably employed almost solely for the maintenance of internal order, as Chhattīsgarh appears to have escaped any foreign attack up to the time of the Marāthās. In 1741 occurred the invasion of Chhattīsgarh by the Marāthā general Bhāskar Pant. The reigning Rājā Raghunāth Singh, the last of the dynasty, was an old and feeble man who made no attempt to resist the Marāthās, and, on the army reaching the capital, it capitulated after a few rounds had been fired. Chhattīsgarh was conferred as an apanage on two cadets of the Bhonsla family of Nāgpur, and was governed by Marāthā *Sūbahs* or district officers until 1818. The administration of the Marāthās during this period was in the highest degree oppressive, being devoted solely to the object of extracting the maximum amount of revenue from the people. On the deposition of Appa Sāhib, the country came under the control of British officers while Sir Richard Jenkins was administering the Nāgpur territories on behalf of the minor Rājā; and the name of the Superinten-

dent of Chhattīsgarh, Colonel Agnew, was long remembered with gratitude by all classes of the people for the justice, moderation, and wisdom with which his administration was conducted. At this period the capital was removed from Ratanpur to Raipur. On the termination of the Rājā's minority a period of Marāthā administration supervened until 1853, when Chhattīsgarh with the rest of the Nāgpur territories lapsed to the British Government. Bilāspur was constituted a separate District in 1861. During the Mutiny the *zamīndār* of the small estate of Sonākhān, in the south-east of the District, raised a small force and defied the local authorities. He was taken prisoner and executed, and his estate was confiscated and sold to an English capitalist whose representatives still own it.

Archaeology. The old town of RATANPUR, the seat of the Haihaivansi Rājput dynasty, is situated 16 miles north of Bilāspur town, and with it the history and archaeology of the District are indissolubly connected. The temples of Seorīnārāyan and Kharod in the south of the District date from the twelfth century, and contain inscriptions relating to the Ratanpur kings. At Jānjgīr are two interesting temples, profusely sculptured. Another beautifully sculptured temple is situated at Pāli. At Dhanpur, 5 miles from Pendrā, are extensive sculptural remains, many of which have been brought to Pendrā. There are remains of old forts at Kosgain, Kotgarh, Lāphāgarh, and Malhār. Amarkantak, about 12 miles from Pendrā across the Rewah border, is the source of the Narbadā, Son, and Johalā rivers. It forms the eastern peak of the Maikala range, and is a celebrated place of Hindu pilgrimage. Several temples have been erected here, but that known as the Kāma Mandira is the only one which possesses any architectural interest.

The people. The population of the District at the last three enumerations was as follows: (1881) 1,017,327; (1891) 1,164,158; (1901) 1,012,972. Between 1881 and 1891 the increase was $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; but the rise of over 24 per cent. in the figures for the *zamīndāris* was principally due to more accurate enumeration, and outside them the growth of population was nearly the same as the Provincial average. During the next decade Bilāspur suffered severely from famine. The District contains three towns—BILĀSPUR, MUNGELĪ, and RATANPUR—and 3,258 inhabited villages. Statistics of population of the reconstituted District, based on the Census of 1901, are shown on the following page.

Tahsīl.	Area in square miles.	Number of Towns.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Population per square mile.	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.	Number of persons able to read and write.
Bilāspur . .	3,111	2	1,049	321,915	103	− 6.8	7,551
Mungelī . .	1,452	1	878	177,116	122	−28.8	2,677
Jānjgīr . .	3,039	..	1,331	418,209	138	− 7.3	6,251
District total	7,602	3	3,258	917,240	121	−12.2	16,479

The average density is 121 persons per square mile, but it varies greatly in different tracts. About 93 per cent. of the population speak the Chhattīsgarhi dialect of Eastern Hindī, and 6 per cent. the Baghelī dialect, which is also found in Jubbulpore and Rewah. The forest tribes are nearly all returned as having abandoned their own language and adopted Hindī. About 90 per cent. of the population are Hindus and 8 per cent. Animists. More than 12,000 are Muhammadans. The Satnāmi and Kabīrpanthī sects are strongly represented in Bilāspur, there being 117,476 adherents of the former and 99,268 of the latter. The original head-quarters of the latter sect were at Kawardhā; but there has now been a schism, and one of the *mahants*, Ugranām Sāhib, lives at Kudarmāl in Bilāspur, where an annual fair attended by members of the sect is held. The caste known as Pankā consists of Gāndas who have adopted Kabīrpanthism. The head-quarters of the Satnāmi sect are now in Raipur; but it was to the Sonākhān forests that Ghāsīdās, the founder of the sect, retired between 1820 and 1830, and from Girod in the same tract that he proclaimed his revelation on emerging from his six months' solitary communing. The Satnāmis are nearly all Chamārs.

Their castes and occupations.

The two castes which are numerically most important are Chamārs (210,000), who constitute 21 per cent. of the population, and Gonds (143,000) 14 per cent. Other fairly numerous castes are Ahīrs or Rāwats (90,000), Kurmīs (54,000), and Kawars (42,000). The proprietors of eight of the *zamīndāri* estates belong to the Tawar sub-caste of the Kawar tribe. The *zamīndār* of Bhatgaon is a Binjhiā, and those of Pandariā, Kantelī, and Bilaigarh-Katgī are Rāj Gonds. Outside the *zamīndāris*, the principal castes of proprietors are Brāhmans, Baniās, and Kurmīs. The best cultivators are the Chandnāhu Kurmīs, but their stinginess is proverbial. Chamārs own some villages, but are idle and slovenly

cultivators. In addition to the Kawars and Gonds, there are several minor forest tribes, such as the Bhainās, Dhanwars, and Khairwārs, most of whom are found in small numbers. The Dhanwars are very backward and live by hunting and snaring. The hills to the north of Pandariā also contain a few Baigās, who subsist principally on forest produce and game. About 84 per cent. of the population of the District were returned in 1901 as supported by agriculture.

Christians number 2,292, of whom 2,030 are natives. The majority belong to the German and Evangelical Churches, while there are over 200 Roman Catholics. The District contains a number of mission stations, the principal centres being Bilāspur, Mungelī, and Chāndkhurī. **Christian missions.**

Black cotton soil or *kanhār* covers two-thirds of the area of the Mungelī *tahsīl*, nearly a quarter of that of Bilāspur excluding the *zamīndāris*, and is found in patches elsewhere. The remaining area consists of the brown or yellow clays called *dorsā* and *matāsi*, each of which extends over about 30 per cent. of the *mālguzāri* portion of the District. Rice is the staple crop and is practically always sown broadcast, while for thinning the plants and taking out weeds, the system of *biāsi*, or ploughing up the plants when they are a few inches high, is resorted to. This is a slovenly method, and the results compare very unfavourably with those obtained from transplantation. Manure is kept almost entirely for rice, with the exception of the small quantity required for sugar-cane and garden crops. Second crops are grown on the superior black and brown soils, the method pursued being to sow the pulses (*urad*, peas, lentils, *tiurā*) and sometimes linseed in rice-fields, either among the standing rice, or less frequently after the crop has been cut and while the fields are still damp. **General agricultural conditions.**

Of the total area of the District, 56 per cent. is included in the 10 *zamīndāri* estates, 2,500 acres have been allotted on the *ryotwāri* system, and 64 square miles are held wholly or partially free of revenue. The remainder is held on the ordinary *mālguzāri* tenure. In 1903-4 the classification showed 626 square miles, or 9 per cent., as included in Government forest; 432 square miles, or 6 per cent., as not available for cultivation; and 2,616 square miles, or $38\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., as cultivable waste other than fallow[1]. The remaining area, amounting to 3,120 square miles, or 51 per cent. of the **Chief agricultural statistics and crops.**

[1] These statistics include 1,548 square miles of waste land in the *zamīndāris* which have not been cadastrally surveyed.

total available, is occupied for cultivation. Except in one or two special tracts there is little or no scope for further extension of cultivation in the *mālguzāri* area, but in the *zamīndāris* only about a quarter of the whole has yet been broken up. They probably include, however, considerable tracts of permanently uncultivable land. Rice covers 1,496 square miles, *kodon* 468, wheat 193, linseed 234, and the pulses (*urad*, *mūng*, and *moth*) 182 square miles. The recent unfavourable seasons, besides producing a decrease in the total area under crop of about 45 square miles, have further caused to some extent a substitution of the light millet *kodon* for the more valuable staples wheat and rice. Wheat is grown in the unembanked black soil fields of the Mungelī *tahsīl*. Only about 2,500 acres are at present occupied by sugar-cane, as against more than 5,000 at the time of settlement (1886–9).

Improvements in agricultural practice.

During the twenty years between 1868 and 1888 the cropped area increased by 39 per cent., and a further increase of 44 per cent. had taken place by 1903–4. The system of cultivation has hitherto been very slovenly; but with the great rise in the prices of grain, better methods are being introduced, and the advantages of manure and irrigation are appreciated. Thirty years ago second crops were raised only on a very small area, but in recent years as much as 400,000 acres have been double cropped. During the ten years ending 1904, 1·58 lakhs were advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act and nearly 9 lakhs under the Agriculturists' Loans Act.

Cattle, ponies, and sheep.

The local breed of cattle is very poor, and no care is exercised in breeding. Buffaloes are largely used for the more laborious work of cultivation. They are imported from the northern Districts, and come in herds along the road from Jubbulpore and Mandlā. Buffaloes are kept only by the better class of tenants, and used in conjunction with bullocks, as they do not work well in the dry season. A few small ponies are bred in the District, and are kept by well-to-do landowners for riding. The use of carts is as yet very uncommon, and most people travel on foot. Goats and sheep are bred for food, and the latter also for their wool; but the supply is insufficient for local requirements, country blankets being imported from Cawnpore.

Irrigation.

Irrigation is not a regular feature of the local agriculture. The District now contains more than 7,000 tanks, but the large majority of these were not constructed for irrigation,

but to hold water for drinking. The tanks are usually embanked on all sides, and the bed is dug out below the level of the ground. In a year of ordinary rainfall the irrigated area would not, until recently, have amounted to more than 5,000 acres. A large number of new tanks have, however, been constructed during the famines, by means of loans or Government grants of money, and these have been made principally with a view to irrigation. In 1903-4 the irrigated area amounted to only 3,000 acres; but in the previous year more than 113 square miles had been irrigated, and provided that there is sufficient rainfall to fill the tanks, this area may now be considered capable of being protected. Schemes for the construction of tanks to protect 140 square miles more have been prepared by the Irrigation department, and most of them are expected to be remunerative. The District has also about 2,400 wells, which irrigate about 1,000 acres of garden crops and sugar-cane.

Forests

Government forests cover 626 square miles, or 9 per cent. of the total area. The most important Reserves are those of Lormī in the north-west and Sonākhān in the south-east. *Sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) is the chief timber tree, and teak is found in small quantities in the Sonākhān range. Other species are *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*), *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), and *karrā* (*Cleistanthus collinus*). Of a total forest revenue in 1903-4 of Rs. 21,000, about Rs. 6,600 was realized from bamboos, Rs. 3,600 from grazing and fodder grass, and nearly Rs. 2,900 from minor forest produce. The sales of timber are thus very small, and this is due to the competition of the extensive *zamīndāri* forests, the produce of which is sold at a cheap rate and with little restriction on fellings. From statistics obtained from railway stations it appears that in 1901 more than 11,000 tons of timber were exported from these forests, of which about two-thirds consisted of railway sleepers.

Minerals.

No mines are at present worked in the District, but prospecting licences for coal over the area of the Korbā and Chhurī *zamīndāris* have been granted to European firms, and it is believed that the Korbā seams, whose existence has long been known, can be worked at a profit. Iron ores exist in Korbā and Lāpha. The iron is smelted by native methods, and is used for the manufacture of agricultural implements. The Jonk river, which passes through the Sonākhān estate, has auriferous sands; and the original purchaser of the estate prospected for gold, but found no veins which would yield

a profit, though gold is obtained in minute quantities by Sonjharās or native gold-washers. Traces of copper have been observed in the north of Lormī and at Ratanpur. Mica in small slabs is found in Pendrā, and a mine was started by a European company in the year 1896, but the experiment proved a failure owing to the sheets being too small and brittle. Limestones occur in abundance, and slates found near Seorī-nārāyan are used in the local schools. Red and white clays occur in places.

Arts and manufactures. The *tasar* silk of Bilāspur is the best in the Central Provinces. Silkworms are bred by Gāndas and Kewats, and the thread is woven by Koshtās. The breeding industry was in danger of extinction a few years ago, but some plots of Government forest have now been set apart for this purpose, and it shows a tendency to revive. The supply of cocoons is, however, insufficient for local requirements, and they are imported from Chotā Nāgpur. The principal centres are Balodā, Khokrā, Chāmpa, Chhurī, and Bilāspur town. *Tasar* cloth is exported in small quantities to all parts of India. Cotton-weaving is carried on in many of the large villages, the finest cloth being produced at Bamnīdīhi and Kamod. A little home-spun thread is still utilized for the thicker kinds of cloth which are required to keep out rain, but otherwise mill-spun thread is solely employed. Cotton cloths with borders of *tasar* silk are also woven. There is no separate dyeing industry, but the Koshtās themselves dye their thread before weaving it. Bell-metal vessels are made at Ratanpur and Chāmpa; but the supply is quite insufficient for local requirements, and they are largely imported from Mandlā, Bhandāra, and Northern India. Catechu is prepared by the caste of Khairwārs in several of the *zamīndāris*. A match factory was established at Kotā in 1902. The capital invested is about a lakh of rupees, and nearly 200 workers are employed.

Commerce. Rice is the staple export, being sent to Bombay, and also to Berār and Northern India. The other agricultural products exported are wheat, *til*, linseed, and mustard. *Sāl* and *bījāsāl* timber is exported, sleepers being sent to Calcutta, and logs and poles for building to the United Provinces. A considerable quantity of lac is sent to Mirzāpur and Calcutta, very little being used locally. Myrabolams, *bagai* or *bhābar* grass (*Pollinia eriopoda*) for the manufacture of paper, *tīkhur* or arrowroot, *chironjī* (the fruit of *Buchanania latifolia*), and gum are other articles of forest produce which are exported. As in other parts of the Province, a brisk trade has recently

sprung up in the slaughter of cattle, and the export of dried meat, hides, and horns. A certain amount of salt is still brought from Ganjam by pack-bullocks, but most comes by rail from Bombay. Gram and *ghī* are imported from the northern Districts for local consumption, and tobacco from Madras and Bengal. A large number of weekly bazars or markets are held, the most important being those of Bamnīdīhi, Bilāspur, Ganiāri, Balodā, Takhatpur, and Chāmpa. Pāli in the Lāpha *zamīndāri* and Sohāgpur in Korbā are bazars for the sale of country iron and bamboo matting. A certain amount of trade in grain and domestic utensils takes place at the annual fair of Kudarmāl.

Railways and roads.

The direct line of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway from Bombay to Calcutta passes through the centre of the District, with nine stations and a length of 85 miles within its limits. From Bilāspur station a branch line also runs north to Katnī, with six stations and a length of 74 miles in the District. All the trade of Bilāspur is now concentrated on the railway, and the old roads to Jubbulpore, Raipur, and Sambalpur have become of very slight importance. Bhātāpāra is the chief station for exports, and the Mungelī-Bhātāpāra road is an important feeder. Bilāspur town is the chief station for imports, but exports only pass through it from the adjacent tracts. It is connected by a metalled road with Mungelī, and by gravelled roads with Seorīnārāyan, Raipur, and Ratanpur. Akaltarā and Chāmpa are the principal stations for the eastern part of the District. The feeder roads are those from Akaltarā to Balodā and Pāmgarh, and from Chāmpa to Bamnīdīhi. The northern *zamīndāris* are still very badly provided with roads passable for carts; and with the exception of timber, produce is generally transported by pack-bullocks. The total length of metalled roads in the Districts is 27 miles, and of unmetalled roads 275 miles, and the annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 38,000. The Public Works department is in charge of 256 miles of road and the District council of 45 miles. There are avenues of trees on 280 miles.

Famine.

Bilāspur District has frequently suffered from failure of crops. Information about any except the recent famines is meagre, but distress is recorded in the years 1828–9, 1834–5, and 1845–6. In 1868–9 the rains failed almost as completely as in 1899–1900, and there was severe distress, accompanied by migration and desertion of villages. Relief works were opened by Government, but great difficulty was found in inducing the people to take advantage of them. The

famine of 1868–9 was followed by a period of twenty-five years of prosperity; but in 1895 there was a very poor harvest, followed in 1896 by a complete failure of crops, and severe famine prevailed throughout the year 1897. Nearly 13 per cent. of the population were on relief in September, and the mortality rose temporarily to a rate of 153 per 1,000 per annum. The total expenditure was nearly 20 lakhs. The famine of 1897 was followed by two favourable years, but in 1899 the monsoon failed completely, and the rice crop was wholly destroyed. Relief operations commenced in the autumn of 1899 and lasted till the autumn of 1900. In May, 1900, nearly 300,000 persons, or 24 per cent. of the whole population were on relief. Owing to the complete and timely organization of relief measures, the mortality was not severe. The total expenditure was 48½ lakhs.

District subdivisions and staff.

The Deputy-Commissioner has a staff of four Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners. For administrative purposes the District is divided into three *tahsīls*, each of which has a *tahsīldār* and a *naib-tahsīldār*. The Forest officer belongs to the Provincial service.

Civil and criminal justice.

The civil judicial staff consists of a District and one Subordinate Judge, and a Munsif at each *tahsīl*. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Chhattīsgarh Division has jurisdiction in the District. Magisterial powers have been granted to five of the *zamīndārs*, and the proprietor of the Chandarpur estate has civil powers. Cattle-theft and cattle-poisoning by Chamārs for the sake of the hides are common forms of crime. Suits for grain bonds and parol debts at heavy interest are noticeable features of the civil litigation.

Land revenue administration.

When the management of Bilāspur District was undertaken by the British Government in 1818, it had been under Marāthā rule for about sixty years, and the condition of the people had steadily deteriorated owing to their extortionate system of government. During the ensuing twelve years of the temporary British administration, the system of annual settlements prevailing under the Marāthās was continued, and the revenue rose from Rs. 96,000 in 1818 to Rs. 99,000 in 1830. From 1830 to 1853 it continued to increase under the Marāthā government; and in the latter year, when the District lapsed to the British, it amounted to Rs. 1,47,000. Triennial settlements were then made, followed by the twenty years' settlement of 1868, when proprietary rights were conferred on the local headmen (*mālguzārs*) and the revenue was fixed at 2·85 lakhs, which was equivalent to an enhancement of

66 per cent. on the *mālguzāri* area. The next settlement was made in 1886–90 for a period of eleven or twelve years. Since the preceding revision cultivation had expanded by 40 per cent., and the income of the landholders had nearly doubled. The demand was enhanced by 81 per cent. in the *mālguzāri* area. A fresh regular settlement was commenced in 1898, but was postponed till 1904 owing to the deterioration caused by the famines. Some reductions have been made in the most affected tracts, and the revenue now stands at 5·28 lakhs. The average rental incidence at the last regular settlement for the fully assessed area was R. 0–9–9 per acre (maximum R. 0–15–5, minimum R. 0–7–1), the corresponding figure of revenue incidence being R. 0–5–6 (maximum R. 0–9–4, minimum R. 0–4–0). The collections of land and total revenue in recent years are shown below, in thousands of rupees :—

	1880–1.	1890–1.	1900–1.	1903–4.
Land revenue . .	2,81	5,25	4,76	5,12
Total revenue . .	4,64	8,57	7,34	8,35

Local boards and municipalities.

The management of local affairs outside the Bilāspur municipality is entrusted to a District council and four local boards, one for each of the three *tahsīls* and a fourth for the northern *zamīndāri* estates of the Bilāspur *tahsīl*. The income of the District council in 1903–4 was Rs. 74,000; and the expenditure on education was Rs. 35,000 and on public works Rs. 17,000.

Police and jails.

The District Superintendent of police has a force of 505 officers and men, including 3 mounted constables, besides 3,415 watchmen for 3,258 inhabited towns and villages. The District jail contains accommodation for 193 prisoners, including 18 females, and the daily average number of prisoners in 1904 was 140.

Education.

In respect of education Bilāspur stands last but one among the Districts of the Province, only 3·8 per cent. of the male population being able to read and write in 1901 and only 502 women. Statistics of the number of pupils under instruction are as follows: (1880–1) 4,202; (1890–1) 5,833; (1900–1) 8,594; (1903–4) 12,351, including 1,012 girls. The educational institutions comprise 3 English middle, 11 vernacular middle, and 142 primary schools. The municipal English middle school at Bilāspur town was raised to the standard of a high school in 1904. The District has also 11 girls' schools, of which 6 are maintained by Government, 4 from mission

funds, and one by a *zamīndār*. The girls' school at Bilāspur town teaches up to the middle standard. The total expenditure on education in 1903-4 was Rs. 61,000, of which Rs. 43,000 was derived from Provincial and Local funds and Rs. 6,800 from fees.

Hospitals and dispensaries.

The District contains 8 dispensaries, with accommodation for 95 in-patients. In 1904 the number of cases treated was 68,840, of whom 1,111 were in-patients, and 1,155 operations were performed. The expenditure was Rs. 13,000. The dispensaries at Pendrā and Pandariā were constructed, and are partly supported, from the funds of *zamīndāri* estates. Bilāspur town has a veterinary dispensary.

Vaccination.

Vaccination is compulsory only in the municipal town of Bilāspur. The percentage of successful vaccinations in 1903-4 was 34 per 1,000 of population.

[Rai Bahādur Purshotam Dās, *Settlement Report*, 1891. A District Gazetteer is being compiled.]

Bilāspur Tahsīl.—Central *tahsīl* of the District of the same name, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 43′ and 23° 7′ N. and 81° 44′ and 82° 40′ E. In 1901 its area was 5,080 square miles, and the population was 472,682. On the formation of the new Drug District, it was considerably reduced in size. The Tarengā estate lying south of the Seonāth river was transferred to the Balodā Bāzār *tahsīl* of Raipur, and three northern *zamīndāris* of Korbā, Chhurī, and Uprorā to the Jānjgīr *tahsīl* of Bilāspur. The revised area of the Bilāspur *tahsīl* is 3,111 square miles, and its population 321,915 persons, compared with 345,332 in 1891. The density is 103 persons per square mile, being 202 in the *khālsa* or ordinary proprietary tract and 47 in the *zamīndāris*. The *tahsīl* contains two towns, BILĀSPUR (population, 18,937), the District and *tahsīl* headquarters, and RATANPUR (5,479); and 1,049 inhabited villages. About 96 square miles of Government forest are included in the *tahsīl*. It contains the *zamīndāri* estates of Pendrā, Kendā Laphā, and Mātin, with an area of 1,976 square miles and a population of 92,394. Tree and scrub forest occupy 1,659 square miles of the *zamīndāris*. The land revenue demand in 1902-3 on the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was approximately 1·34 lakhs. The *tahsīl* consists of an open plain to the south, mainly producing rice, and an expanse of hill and forest comprised in the *zamīndāri* estates to the north.

Mungelī Tahsīl.—Western *tahsīl* of Bilāspur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 53′ and 22° 40′ N. and 81° 12′ and 82° 2′ E. In 1901 its area was 1,794 square miles,

and the population was 255,054. On the formation of the new Drug District, the portion of the *tahsīl* south of a line drawn from the north-east corner of Kawardhā State to the junction of the Agar and Seonāth rivers was transferred to the Bemetāra *tahsil* of that District. The revised area and population of the Mungelī *tahsīl* are 1,452 square miles and 177,116 persons. The population of the same area in 1891 was 248,740. The density is 122 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains one town, MUNGELĪ (population, 5,907), the head-quarters, and 878 inhabited villages. It includes the *zamīndāri* estates of Pandariā and Kantelī, with an area of 512 square miles and a population of 53,937. Of the *zamīndāris*, 263 square miles are covered with tree and scrub forest. The land revenue demand in 1902–3 on the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was approximately 1·18 lakhs. The *tahsīl* has 410 square miles of Government forest, and also contains a tract of black soil and the ordinary rice land of Chhattīsgarh. The open country is noticeably bare of trees.

Jānjgīr. — Eastern *tahsīl* of Bilāspur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 37′ and 22° 50′ N. and 82° 19′ and 83° 40′ E. In 1901 its area was 1,467 square miles, and the population was 285,236. On the formation of the new Drug District, the constitution of the *tahsīl* was considerably altered. A tract lying south of the Mahānadī, containing the Bilaigarh, Katgī, and Bhatgaon *zamīndāris*, the Sonākhān estate, and the Sarsewā group of villages were transferred to the Balodā Bāzār *tahsīl* of Raipur District, while the three northern *zamīndāris* of Korbā, Chhurī, and Uprorā were transferred from the Bilāspur *tahsīl* to Jānjgīr. On the transfer of Sambalpur District to Bengal, the Chandarpur-Padampur and Mālkhurdā estates of that District were added to this *tahsīl*. The revised figures of area and population for the Jānjgīr *tahsīl* are 3,039 square miles and 418,209 persons. The population of this area in 1891 was 451,024. The density is 138 persons per square mile. The *tahsīl* contains 1,331 villages. The head-quarters are at Jānjgīr, a village of 2,257 inhabitants, adjoining Nailā station on the railway, 26 miles east of Bilāspur town. The *tahsīl* has only four square miles of Government forest. It includes the *zamīndāri* estates of Chāmpa, Korbā, Chhurī, and Uprorā, with a total area of 1,748 square miles, of which 746 are tree and scrub forest, and a population of 112,680 persons. The land revenue demand in 1902–3 on the area now constituting the *tahsīl* was approximately 1·42 lakhs. The old area of the *tahsīl* is almost wholly

an open plain, covered with yellow clay soil and closely cropped with rice, while the northern *zamīndāris* consist principally of densely forested hills and plateaux.

Bilāspur Town.—Head-quarters of the District of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 5′ N. and 82° 10′ E., near the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 776 miles from Bombay and 445 from Calcutta. The town is said to be named after one Bilāsa, a fisherwoman, and for a long period it consisted only of a few fishermen's huts. A branch line of 198 miles leads to Katnī junction on the East Indian Railway. The town stands on the river Arpā, 3 miles from the railway station. Population (1901), 18,937. Bilāspur is the eighth largest town in the Province, and is rapidly increasing in importance. Its population has almost quadrupled since 1872. A municipality was constituted in 1867. The municipal receipts during the decade ending 1901 averaged Rs. 33,000. In 1903–4 the income was Rs. 39,000, derived principally from octroi. Bilāspur is the leading station in the District for the distribution of imports, but it ranks after Bhātāpāra and Akaltarā as a collecting centre. Its trade is principally with Bombay. The weaving of *tasar* silk and cotton cloth are the principal industries. Bilāspur is the head-quarters in the Central Provinces of the cooly-recruiting agency for Assam. It contains, besides the usual District officers, a number of railway servants and is the head-quarters of a company of volunteers. The educational institutions comprise a high school, a school for the European children of railway servants, and various branch schools. The town possesses four dispensaries, including railway and police hospitals, and a veterinary dispensary. A station of the Foreign Christian Missionary Society of America (unsectarian) was opened in 1885. A church has been built and the mission supports an orphanage for girls, boarding and day schools for boys, and a dispensary.

Mungelī Town.—Head-quarters of the *tahsīl* of the same name, Bilāspur District, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 4′ N. and 81° 42′ E., on the Agar river, 31 miles west of Bilāspur town by road. Population (1901), 5,907. The town is increasing in importance, and is the centre of trade for most of the Mungelī *tahsīl*. Grain is generally sent to Bhātāpāra station, 32 miles distant. A station of the American Unsectarian Mission, called the Disciples of Christ, has been established at Mungelī, which supports a leper asylum, a dispensary, and schools. The Government institutions comprise

a dispensary, a vernacular middle school, and a girls' school. Sanitation is provided for by a small fund raised from the inhabitants.

Ratanpur.—Town in the *tahsīl* and District of Bilāspur, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 17′ N. and 82° 11′ E., 16 miles north of Bilāspur town by road. It lies in a hollow below some hills. Population (1901), 5,479. Ratanpur was for many centuries the capital of Chhattīsgarh under the Haihaivansi dynasty, its foundation being assigned to king Ratnadeva in the tenth century. Ruins cover about 15 square miles, consisting of numerous tanks and temples scattered among groves of mango-trees. There are about 300 tanks, most of them very small, and filled with stagnant, greenish water, and several hundred temples, none of which, however, possesses any archaeological importance. Many *satī* monuments to the queens of the Haihaivansi dynasty also remain. Ratanpur is a decaying town, the proximity of Bilāspur having deprived it of any commercial importance. It possesses a certain amount of trade in lac, and vessels of bell-metal and glass bangles are manufactured. Its distinctive element is a large section of lettered Brāhmans, the hereditary holders of rent-free villages, who are the interpreters of the sacred writings and the ministers of religious ceremonies for a great portion of Chhattīsgarh. The climate is unhealthy, and the inhabitants are afflicted with goitre and other swellings on the body. The town contains a vernacular middle school, with branch schools.

FEUDATORY STATES

Makrai.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 58′ and 22° 14′ N. and 76° 57′ and 77° 12′ E., within the Hardā *tahsīl* of Hoshangābād District, with an area of 155 square miles. The State contains some rich villages in the open valley of the Narbadā; but the greater part of it is situated on the lower slopes of the Sātpurā range, consisting of low hills covered with forest, of which teak, *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), and *tinsā* (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*) are the principal trees. The head-quarters of the State are at Makrai, which contains an old hill-fort, and is 15 miles from Bhiringī station and 19 miles from Hardā on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The ruling family, who are Rāj Gonds, claim a high antiquity of descent and a jurisdiction extending in former times over the whole of the Hardā *tahsīl*. There is, however, no historical evidence in support of their pretensions, and all that is known is that they were deprived by Sindhia and the Peshwā of the forest tracts of Kālībhīt and Chārwa. The present chief, Rājā Lachū Shāh *alias* Bharat Shāh, was born in 1846 and succeeded in 1866. He was temporarily set aside for mismanagement in 1890 but reinstalled in 1893, when he appointed a Dīwān with the approval of the Chief Commissioner. The population of the State in 1901 was 13,035 persons, showing a decrease of 30 per cent. in the previous decade, during which it was severely affected by famine. Gonds and Korkūs form a considerable portion of the population. In 1904 the occupied area amounted to 62 square miles, of which 54 were under crops. The cropped area is said to have decreased by 3,000 acres since 1894. Wheat is the staple crop, and *jowār*, cotton, and gram are also grown. The revenue in 1904 amounted to Rs. 62,000, of which Rs. 43,000 was derived from land, the incidence of land revenue being Rs. 1–8–0 per acre. Other principal sources of revenue were forests (Rs. 5,500), excise (Rs. 5,000), and law and justice (Rs. 1,400). The expenditure in the same year was Rs. 64,000, of which Rs. 14,000 was expended in the maintenance of the ruling family, Rs. 6,100 on administration, Rs. 4,700 on police, Rs. 1,600 on educa-

tion, Rs. 1,700 on medical relief, and Rs. 9,000 on miscellaneous items. The receipts and expenditure during the five years ending 1903 averaged Rs. 65,000 and Rs. 61,000 respectively. No tribute is paid to Government. The State contains 42 miles of unmetalled roads. It maintains five primary schools, the total number of pupils being 273. In 1901 the number of persons returned as able to read and write was 353. There is a dispensary at Makrai. The State is under the charge of the Deputy-Commissioner of Hoshangābād District, subject to the control of the Commissioner, Nerbudda Division.

Bastar.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 17° 46′ and 20° 14′ N. and 80° 15′ and 82° 15′ E., with an area of 13,062 square miles. It is situated in the south-eastern corner of the Province, and is bounded north by the Kānker State, south by the Godāvari District of Madras, west by Chānda District, Hyderābād State, and the Godāvari river, and east by the Jeypore estate in Vizagapatam. The head-quarters are at Jagdalpur (population, 4,762), situated on the Indrāvati river, 136 miles south of Dhamtarī. The town is well laid out, with many handsome buildings and two fine tanks. The central and north-western portions of the State are very mountainous. To the east, for two-thirds of the total length from north to south, extends a plateau with an elevation of about 2,000 feet above sea-level, broken by small isolated ranges. The old and new capitals, Bastar and Jagdalpur, are situated towards the south of the plateau. The Indrāvati river, rising in the Kālāhandī State, enters Bastar on the plateau near Jagdalpur, and flows across the centre of the State from east to west, dividing it into two portions. On reaching the border it turns to the south, and forms the boundary of Bastar until it joins the Godāvari below Sironchā. At Chitrakot, where the Indrāvati leaves the Jagdalpur plateau, is a fine waterfall, 94 feet high, while the course of the river through the western hills exhibits some extremely picturesque scenery. The rivers next in importance are the Sābari, which divides Bastar from Jeypore on the east, and the Tel, which rises in the State and flows south-west to the Godāvari. The north-western portion of the State is covered by a mass of rugged hills known locally as the Abujmār, or country of the Māria Gonds. South of the Indrāvati the Bailādila ('bullock's hump') range runs through the centre of Bastar from north to south, its highest peaks being over 4,000 feet above sea-level, while smaller ranges extend in an easterly

Descriptive.

direction to the south of the plateau. The south-western tracts are low-lying, but are broken by ranges of sandstone hills, all of which run from north-west to south-east, each range ending in a steep declivity, a few miles south of which another parallel chain commences. Great boulders of vitrified sandstone strew the surface of these hills and gleam pink in the sun. The rock formation belongs partly to the gneissic and transition series, but is mainly the Lower Vindhyan, consisting of sandstones, shales, and limestones. The forests in the south-west contain a considerable quantity of teak, with which is mixed *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*). Towards the north-east the teak rapidly disappears, and is replaced by *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), which then becomes the principal timber tree, though much of the forest is of the nature of scrub. Frequently the undergrowth is replaced by patches of dense high grass, with scattered trees of *Diospyros* or ebony. The *Caryota urens* and the palmyra palm are found, the latter in the south and the former in the west and north. Cane brakes also occur by the hill streams. Bamboos, of which three species occur, are restricted entirely to the hills. The average annual rainfall exceeds 50 inches, and the climate on the plateau is pleasantly cool, 102° being the highest recorded.

History. The family of the Rājā is a very ancient one, and is stated to belong to the Rājputs of the Lunar race. It is said to have come originally from Warangal about the commencement of the fourteenth century, driven thence by the encroachments of the Muhammadan power. The traditional founder of the family, Annam Deo, is said to have established himself in Bastar under the protection of the goddess Danteshwarī, still the tutelary deity of the family and the State, who presented him with a sword which is held in veneration to the present day. The temple of the goddess at Dantewāra, at the confluence of the Sankanī and Dankanī rivers, was formerly the scene of an annual human sacrifice similar to that of the Khonds; and for many years after 1842 a guard was placed over the temple, and the Rājā held personally responsible for its discontinuance. Up to the time of the Marāthās Bastar occupied an almost independent position, but an annual tribute was imposed on it by the Nāgpur government in the eighteenth century. At this period the constant feuds between Bastar and the neighbouring State of Jeypore in Madras kept the country for many years in a state of anarchy. The chief object of

contention was the Kotapad tract, which had originally belonged to Bastar, but had been ceded in return for assistance given by Jeypore to one of the Bastar chiefs during some family dissensions. The Central Provinces Administration finally made this over to Jeypore in 1863, on condition of payment of tribute of Rs. 3,000, two-thirds of which sum was remitted from the amount payable by Bastar. By virtue of this arrangement the tribute of Bastar was, until the death of the last chief, reduced to a purely nominal amount. The late chief, Bhairon Deo, died in 1891 at the age of 52. In consequence of the continued misgovernment under which the State had suffered for some years, an officer selected by the Local Administration had been appointed as Dīwān in 1886. The late Rājā's infant son, Rudra Pratāp Deo, was recognized as his successor, and during his minority the State is being managed by Government. For six years two European officers held the office of Administrator, but this post was abolished in 1904 and a native officer was appointed as Superintendent. The young chief, who was twenty years old in 1905, has been educated at the Rājkumār College, Raipur.

Population.

The population in 1901 was 306,501 persons, having decreased by 1 per cent. during the previous decade. The State contains 2,525 inhabited villages, and the density of population is only 23 persons per square mile. About two-thirds of the inhabitants are Gonds, and there are also a number of Halbās. The Gonds of Bastar are perhaps the wildest tribe in the Province. In some localities they still wear no clothing beyond a string of beads round the waist, while the approach of a stranger is frequently a signal for the whole village to take to the jungle. The language principally spoken is Halbī, a mixed dialect of Hindī, Oriyā, and Marāthī. Bhatrī, a dialect of Oriyā, is the speech of about 6 per cent. of the population, while the Māria Gonds have a language peculiar to themselves. More than 7 per cent. of the population speak Telugu. The Methodist Episcopal Church has a station at Jagdalpur.

Agriculture, forests, &c.

The soil throughout the greater part of Bastar consists of a light clay with an admixture of sand, well adapted to the raising of rice, but requiring a good supply of water. There has been no cadastral survey except in 647 villages of the open country on the plateau, of which 486 have been regularly settled. No statistics of cultivation for the State as a whole are therefore available. The cultivation is, however, extremely

sparse, as even in the regularly settled tract, which is the most advanced and populous portion of the State, only 25 per cent. of the total area available has been brought under the plough. Rice is by far the most important crop, but various small millets, pulses, and gram are also grown. There are a few irrigation tanks in the open country. About 9,800 square miles, or three-fourths of the whole area of the State, are forest or grass land, but only about 5,000 square miles contain regular forest. The remainder either has been wholly denuded of forest growth by the system of shifting cultivation, or is covered only by valueless low shrub. The moist or *sāl* forests occur in the tract south of the Indrāvati and east of the Bailādila range, occupying principally the valleys and lower hills and the eastern plateau. The dry forests, in which the principal tree is teak, are distributed over the south, west, and north-west of the State, and also cover the higher slopes of the hills in the moist forest belt. The commercial value of the forests is determined at present rather by their proximity to a market and the comparative facilities of transport than by the intrinsic quality of the timber. The principal products are teakwood and other timbers, myrabolams, lac, wax, honey, hides and horns, tanning and dyeing barks, *tasar* silk cocoons, and other minor articles. Rich and extensive deposits of iron ore occur, especially in association with the transition rocks. Mica has been found in several places, the largest plates discovered near Jungāni from surface deposits measuring about 5 inches across, but being cloudy and cracked. Gold in insignificant quantities is obtained by washing in the Indrāvati and other streams in the west. The State contains 121 miles of gravelled and 191 miles of embanked roads; the principal routes are those leading from Jagdalpur to Dhamtarī, to Jeypore, and to Chānda. The bulk of the trade goes to Dhamtarī station.

Administrative. The State is in charge of a Political Agent for the Feudatory States under the supervision of the Commissioner, Chhattīsgarh Division. For administrative purposes Bastar is divided into five *tahsīls*, each in charge of a *tahsīldār*. The Superintendent of the State is at present an Extra-Assistant Commissioner and has two Assistants with magisterial powers. The State also employs European Forest and Medical officers. There are seven subordinate *zamīndāri* estates covering 4,189 square miles, situated mainly to the south of the Indrāvati. The total revenue in 1904 was 2·76 lakhs, the main items being land revenue (Rs. 1,15,000), including cesses, arrears, and miscellaneous receipts, forests (Rs. 65,000), and excise (Rs. 70,000).

A revised assessment of land revenue has recently been sanctioned. The net demand for land revenue in 1904 was only Rs. 83,000, a considerable proportion being 'assigned.' A cadastral survey has been effected in 647 villages of the Jagdalpur *tahsīl*, and in most of these a regular settlement based on soil classification has been carried out. The remaining area is summarily settled, the rates being fixed on the seed required for each holding, or on the number of ploughs in the possession of the cultivators. The incidence of the land revenue per cultivated acre in the regularly settled tract is 5 annas, 1 pie. The total expenditure in 1904 was 2·52 lakhs, the principal heads being Government tribute (Rs. 15,600[1]), allowances to the ruling family (Rs. 24,000), administration (Rs. 32,000), forests (Rs. 15,000), excise (Rs. 15,000), land revenue settlement (Rs. 7,700), and public works (Rs. 37,000). The tribute is liable to revision. Since 1893 the State has expended 5·68 lakhs on public works, under the supervision of the Engineer of the Chhattīsgarh States division. The works carried out include, besides the roads already mentioned, residences for the chief and the Administrator and for the *zamīndār* of Bhopālpatnam, office buildings at Jagdalpur and the head-quarters of *tahsīls*, a school, dispensary, and *sarai* at Jagdalpur. The State maintains 51 schools, including an English middle school at Jagdalpur, 4 vernacular middle schools, and a girls' school, with a total of about 3,000 pupils. The expenditure on education in 1904 was Rs. 11,000. Only 1,997 persons were returned as able to read and write in 1901, the proportion of literate males being 1·2 per cent. Dispensaries have been established at Jagdalpur, Antāgarh, Kondegaon, Bhopālpatnam, Kondā, and Bījāpur, at which 59,000 persons were treated in 1904, and Rs. 12,000 was expended on medical relief.

Kānker.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 6′ and 20° 34′ N. and 80° 41′ and 81° 48′ E., with an area of 1,429 square miles. It is bounded on the north by Drug and Raipur Districts, on the east by Raipur, on the south by the State of Bastar, and on the west by Chānda. The head-quarters are at Kānker, a village with 3,906 inhabitants, situated on a small stream called the Dudh, 39 miles by road from Dhamtarī station on the Raipur-Dhamtarī branch of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. Most of the State consists of hill and forest country; and except in the eastern portion along the

Descriptive and historical.

[1] Besides this, Rs. 2,000 of the sum paid by the Jeypore estate for the Kotapad tract to the Madras Government is considered to be part of the Bastar tribute.

valley of the Mahānadī there are no extensive tracts of plain land, while the soil of the valley itself is interspersed with outcrops of rock and scattered boulders. The Mahānadī enters Kānker at a short distance from its source, and flows through the eastern part of the State, receiving the waters of numerous small streams from the hills. Gneiss of a granitoid character is the prevailing rock formation. The principal forest trees are teak, *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), *sirsā* (*Dalbergia latifolia*), and *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*). The ruling chief belongs to a very old Rājput family, and according to tradition his ancestors were raised to the throne by a vote of the people. During the supremacy of the Haihaivansi dynasty of Chhattīsgarh, the chief of Kānker is shown in an old record as in subsidiary alliance with the ruling power, and as having held the Dhamtarī tract within their territories. Under the Marāthās the Kānker State was held on condition of furnishing a military contingent 500 strong whenever required. In 1809 the chief was deprived of Kānker, but was restored to it in 1818 by the British Resident administering the Nāgpur territories, on payment of an annual tribute of Rs. 500. This was remitted in 1823 on the resumption by the Government of certain manorial dues, and since then no tribute has been paid. The present chief, Lāl Kamal Deo, was installed in 1904. The population in 1901 was 103,536 persons, having increased by 26 per cent. during the previous decade. Gonds form more than half the total population, and there are also a number of Halbās. Chhattīsgarhi and Gondī are the languages spoken.

Economic. The soil is for the most part light and sandy. Nearly 300 square miles, or 21 per cent. of the total area, were occupied for cultivation in 1904, and 284 square miles were actually under crop. Rice covers nearly 130 square miles and *kodon* 32. The cultivated area has increased largely in recent years. There are 21 tanks which irrigate about 350 acres. The recent opening of a branch line to Dhamtarī has brought the considerable forests of the State within reach of the railway, and a large income is obtained from sales of timber. About 333 square miles are tree forest. The State contains 51 miles of metalled and 75 miles of unmetalled roads; the principal metalled road is from Dhamtarī to Kānker.

Administrative. The total revenue in 1904 was Rs. 1,56,000, the principal heads of receipt being land revenue (Rs. 67,000), forests (Rs. 60,000), and excise (Rs. 20,000). The incidence of land revenue is less than 4 annas per acre of cropped area. The principal items of expenditure were Rs. 45,000 for the main-

tenance of the ruling family, Rs. 13,000 on general administration, Rs. 8,300 on police, Rs. 4,200 on education, and Rs. 3,400 on land revenue settlement. During twelve years since 1892–3 a total of Rs. 1,14,000 has been expended on public works, under the supervision of the Engineer of the Chhattīsgarh States division. Besides the roads already mentioned, an office building, jail, schools, post office, and *sarai* or native travellers' rest-house have been constructed at Kānker. The State supports one vernacular middle and 16 primary schools, with a total of 1,316 pupils. Only 904 persons were returned as able to read and write in 1901, the proportion of male literates being 1·7 per cent. of the population. A dispensary is maintained at Kānker. A Political Agent under the supervision of the Commissioner, Chhattīsgarh Division, controls the relations of the State with Government.

Descriptive and historical.

Nāndgaon State.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 50′ and 21° 22′ N. and 80° 26′ and 81° 13′ E., with an area of 871 square miles. The main area of the State, comprised in the Nāndgaon and Dongargaon *parganas*, is situated between Chānda and Drug Districts to the south of Khairāgarh; but the three detached blocks of Pandādeh, Pattā, and Mohgaon lie to the north of this, being separated from it by portions of the Khairāgarh and Chhuīkhadān States and by Drug District. The capital is situated at RĀJ-NĀNDGAON, a station on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. The Pattā and Pandādeh tracts contain high hills and dense forests, and Dongargaon to the south of them is composed mainly of broken ground with low peaks covered with a growth of scrub jungle. Towards the east, however, the *parganas* of Nāndgaon and Mohgaon lie in an open black soil plain of very great fertility. The Seonāth river flows through the southern portion of the State, and the Bāgh skirts it on the west. The ruling family are Bairāgis by caste; and as celibacy is one of the observances of this order, the succession devolved until lately on the *chelā* or disciple adopted by the *mahant* or devotee. The first *mahant*, who came from the Punjab, started a money-lending business in Ratanpur towards the end of the eighteenth century with the countenance of the Marāthā governor Bimbāji Bhonsla. His successors acquired the *parganas* of Pandādeh and Nāndgaon from the former Gond and Muhammadan landholders, in satisfaction of loans. Mohgaon was conferred on the fifth *mahant* by the Rājā of Nāgpur with the status of *zamīndār*; and Dongargaon was part of the territory of a *zamīndār* who rebelled against the Bhonslas, and whose estate

was divided between the chiefs of Nāndgaon and Khairāgarh as a reward for crushing the revolt. Nāndgaon became a Feudatory State in 1865. Ghāsi Dās, the seventh *mahant* from the founder, was married and had a son, and in 1879 the Government of India informed him that his son would be allowed to succeed. This son, the late Rājā Bahādur Mahant Balrām Dās, succeeded his father as a minor in 1883, and was installed in 1891, on the understanding that he would conduct the administration with the advice of a Dīwān appointed by Government. He was distinguished by his munificent contributions to objects of public utility, among which may be mentioned the Raipur and Rāj-Nāndgaon water-works. He received the title of Rājā Bahādur in 1893, and died in 1897, leaving an adopted son Rajendra Dās, four years old, who has been recognized as the successor. During his minority the State is being managed by Government, its administration being controlled by a Political Agent under the supervision of the Commissioner, Chhattīsgarh Division. In 1901 the population was 126,365, showing a decrease of 31 per cent. in the previous decade, during which the State was very severely affected by famine. The State contains one town, RĀJ-NĀNDGAON, and 515 inhabited villages; and the density of population is 145 persons per square mile. Telis, Gonds, Ahīrs or Rāwats, and Chamārs are the principal castes. The majority of the population belong to Chhattīsgarh, and except for a few thousand Marāthās, the Chhattīsgarhi dialect is the universal speech.

Economic. The greater part of the cultivated land consists of rich dark soil. In 1904 nearly 550 square miles, or 63 per cent. of the total area, were occupied for cultivation, of which 512 were under crop. The cropped area has decreased in recent years owing to the unfavourable seasons. Rice covers 36 per cent. of the cultivated area, *kodon* 36½ per cent., wheat 13 per cent., and linseed 4 per cent. Nearly 500 tanks have been constructed for irrigation, which supply water to more than 3,000 acres of rice land, while 500 acres on which vegetables are grown are irrigated from wells. About 141 square miles, or a sixth of the total area, are forest. Valuable timber is scarce, the forests being mainly composed of inferior species. *Harrā* (*Terminalia Chebula*) grows in abundance, and there are large areas of bamboo forest in the Pattā tract. Limestone and iron ores exist, but are not worked at present. Brass vessels and ornaments are made at Rāj-Nāndgaon. This town also contains the Bengal-Nāgpur Spinning and Weaving Mills, which were

erected by Rājā Balrām Dās and subsequently sold to a Calcutta firm. A new ginning factory is under construction. The Bengal-Nāgpur Railway passes through the State, with stations at Rāj-Nāndgaon and Muripār. There are 148 miles of gravelled and 10 miles of embanked roads. The principal routes are the great eastern road from Nāgpur to Raipur, the Rāj-Nāndgaon-Khairāgarh, Rāj-Nāndgaon-Bījātolā, and Rāj-Nāndgaon-Ghupsāl roads. The bulk of the trade goes to Rāj-Nāndgaon station, which also receives the produce of the adjoining tracts of Raipur.

Administrative.

The total revenue in 1904 was Rs. 3,49,000, the principal heads of receipt being land revenue and cesses (Rs. 2,45,000), forests and excise (Rs. 20,000 each), and income tax (Rs. 18,000). The State has been cadastrally surveyed, and the system of land revenue assessment follows that prescribed for British Districts of the Central Provinces. A revised settlement was concluded in 1903, and the incidence of land revenue amounts to about 10 annas per acre. The village headmen have no proprietary rights, but receive a proportion of the 'assets' of the village. The total expenditure in 1904 was Rs. 2,63,000. The ordinary tribute paid to Government is at present Rs. 70,000, but is liable to periodical revision. Other items of expenditure were—allowances to the ruling family (Rs. 12,000), general administration (Rs. 83,000), public works (Rs. 28,000), and loans and repayment of debt (Rs. 57,000). Since 1894, about 4½ lakhs has been expended on public works, under the superintendence of the Engineer of the Chhattīsgarh States division. The State supports 30 schools, including one English middle, one vernacular middle, and one girls' school, with a total of 2,571 pupils. In 1904 the expenditure on education was Rs. 9,900. At the Census of 1901, the number of persons returned as literate was 2,151, the proportion of males able to read and write being 3·4 per cent. A dispensary is maintained at Rāj-Nāndgaon, at which 17,000 patients were treated in 1904.

Rāj-Nāndgaon Town.—Head-quarters of the Nāndgaon Feudatory State, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 5′ N. and 81° 3′ E., on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 656 miles from Bombay. Population (1901), 11,094. The large group of buildings forming the Rājā's palace covers more than five acres of land, surrounded by a garden with a maze. Another large and handsome garden contains a guest-house for European visitors and a menagerie. The affairs of the town are managed by a municipal committee, whose receipts average about

Rs. 33,000. The water-supply is obtained from the Seonāth river, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles distant. Filtration wells have been sunk in the river, and water is pumped into a service reservoir in the town. The works were opened in 1894 and cost 1·25 lakhs. Rāj-Nāndgaon is the centre of trade for the surrounding area. The principal exports are grain and oilseeds. The Bengal-Nāgpur Spinning and Weaving Mills were opened in 1894, with a capital of 6 lakhs, a large portion of which was contributed by the chief. They contain 208 looms and 15,176 spindles, employ 1,112 operatives, and produced 34,975 cwt. of yarn and 7,468 cwt. of cloth in 1904. A cotton-ginning factory is under construction. A station of the American Pentecostal Mission has been established in the town. Rāj-Nāndgaon possesses an English middle school with 88 pupils, a girls' school, three other schools, and a dispensary.

Descriptive and historical.

Khairāgarh.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 4′ and 21° 34′ N. and 80° 27′ and 81° 12′ E., with an area of 931 square miles. The State consists of three separate sections, and is situated on the western border of Drug District, with which, and with the States of Chhuīkhadān, Kawardhā, and Nāndgaon, its boundaries interlace. Of these three sections, the small *pargana* of Khulwā to the north-west was the original domain of the chiefs of Khairāgarh; Khamariā on the north-east was seized from the Kawardhā State at the end of the eighteenth century in lieu of a small loan; while of the main area of the estate in the south, the Khairāgarh tract was received at an early date from the Mandlā Rājās, and that of Dongargarh represents half the estate of a *zamīndār* who rebelled against the Marāthās, and whose territory, when the rebellion was crushed by the chiefs of Khairāgarh and Nāndgaon, was divided between them. The head-quarters are at Khairāgarh, a village of 4,656 inhabitants, situated 23 miles from both the Dongargarh and Rāj-Nāndgaon stations on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. The western tracts of the State are hilly, but those to the east lie in a level black soil plain of great fertility. The ruling family are considered to be Nāgvansi Rājputs and to be connected with the house of Chotā Nāgpur. Their pedigree dates back to A. D. 740. The present chief, Kamal Nārāyan Singh, was installed in 1890 at the age of twenty-three years, and the hereditary title of Rājā was conferred on him in 1898. He conducts the administration of the State with the advice of a Dīwān appointed by Government, under the supervision of the Political Agent for the Chhattīsgarh Feudatory States. The population

in 1901 was 137,554, showing a decrease of 24 per cent. in the previous decade, during which the State was severely affected by famine. There are one town, DONGARGARH (population, 5,856), and 497 inhabited villages. The density of population is 147 persons per square mile. Gonds, Lodhīs, Chamārs, and Ahīrs are the most important castes numerically; the people belong almost entirely to Chhattīsgarh, and the local dialect of Hindī named after this tract is universally spoken.

Economic. The eastern part of the State is a fertile expanse of black soil, while in the west the land is light and sandy. In 1904 nearly 543 square miles, or 58 per cent. of the total area, were occupied for cultivation, and nearly 486 square miles were under crop. *Kodon* covers 41 per cent. of the cropped area, rice 21 per cent., and wheat 22 per cent. The cultivated area has decreased by about 70 square miles since 1894. There are 224 irrigation tanks, by which about 3,000 acres are protected. About 165 square miles are covered with forest, the principal species being teak, *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*), and bamboos. Brass vessels and wooden furniture are made at Khairāgarh town, and carpets of a good quality are produced in the jail. The rolling of native cigarettes gives employment to a considerable number of persons. The Bengal-Nāgpur Railway passes through the south of the State, with the stations of Bortalao, Dongargarh, and Musra within its limits. About 63 miles of embanked and 57 miles of unembanked roads have been constructed, the most important being those from Dongargarh through Khairāgarh to Kawardhā, and from Khairāgarh to Rāj-Nāndgaon. Exports of produce are taken to Rāj-Nāndgaon and Dongargarh railway stations.

Administrative. The total revenue of the State in 1904 was Rs. 3,03,000 Rs. 1,84,000 being realized from land revenue, Rs. 29,000 from forests, and Rs. 21,000 from excise. The incidence of land revenue is R. 0-10-5 per occupied acre. A regular cadastral survey has been carried out, and the method of assessment is that prescribed for British Districts. The revenue is settled with the headmen of villages, who are allowed a commission of 20 or 30 per cent. of the 'assets,' but have no proprietary rights. The rents of the cultivators are also fixed at settlement. The expenditure in 1904 was Rs. 3,18,000, the principal items being Government tribute (Rs. 70,000), private expenses of the ruling family (Rs. 90,000), general administration (Rs. 21,000), public works (Rs. 20,000), education (Rs. 9,000), and medical relief (Rs. 4,000). Some arrears of tribute and Government loans were also repaid in that

year. In respect of tribute Khairāgarh was treated by the Marāthās as an ordinary estate, and the revenue was periodically raised on a scrutiny of the 'assets.' It is now fixed by Government for a term of years. During the twelve years ending 1905 nearly 3·84 lakhs has been expended on the improvement of communications and the erection of public buildings. The State maintains 26 schools, including a high school at Khairāgarh, middle schools at Khairāgarh, Dongargarh, and Khamariā, and a girls' school at Dongargarh, with a total of 1,931 pupils. At the Census of 1901 the number of persons returned as able to read and write was 2,064, the proportion of male literates being 2·9 per cent. of the population. Dispensaries are maintained at Khairāgarh town and Dongargarh, in which 12,000 persons were treated in 1904.

Dongargarh.—Town in the Khairāgarh Feudatory State, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 11′ N. and 80° 46′ E., on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 647 miles from Bombay. Population (1901), 5,856. Dongargarh is the centre of trade for the adjoining tracts of country, and a large weekly grain market is held. A number of railway officials are stationed here, and it is the head-quarters of a company of volunteers. There are a vernacular middle school, a girls' school, and a dispensary.

Descriptive and historical.

Chhuīkhadān (or Kondkā).—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 30′ and 21° 38′ N. and 80° 53′ and 81° 11′ E. This small State consists of three detached blocks and a single village lying in the rich tract of black soil at the foot of the eastern range of the Sātpurā Hills, and surrounded by the Khairāgarh and Nāndgaon States and the *zamīndāris* of Drug District. The total area is 154 square miles, almost the whole of which is a fertile cultivated plain. The head-quarters, Chhuīkhadān ('the quarry of white clay'), is situated 31 miles from both the Rāj-Nāndgaon and Dongargarh stations of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, the road to Chhuīkhadān being through Khairāgarh. Its population in 1901 was 2,085. The ruling family belongs to a sect of Bairāgis among whom marriage is permitted, and the succession is determined by the ordinary law of primogeniture. The nucleus of the State was formerly the Kondkā tract of the Parpodī *zamīndāri*, which was acquired from the *zamīndār* in satisfaction of a loan by Mahant Rūp Dās, the founder of the Chhuīkhadān family, about the middle of the eighteenth century. His successor, Tulsī Dās, was recognized by the Bhonsla Rājā of Nāgpur as *zamīndār* of Kondkā about 1780,

and the status of Feudatory chief was conferred on the family in 1865. In 1867, on the accession of Mahant Shām Kishor Dās, who had for some years previously been virtual ruler, the chief was required, in consequence of his tyrannous behaviour to the headmen of villages, to conduct the administration with the advice of a Dīwān appointed by Government. Shām Kishor Dās died in 1896, and his son and successor, Rādha Ballabh Kishor Dās, was poisoned two years later, together with one of his sons, by arsenic administered by a relative. The offender and his accomplice were convicted by a special court and executed; and the eldest son, Digbijai Jugal Kishor Dās, a boy of fifteen years of age, succeeded, the estate being managed by Government during his minority. This boy, who was very weakly, died in 1903, and was succeeded by his younger brother, Bhūdav Kishor Dās, aged fourteen years, who is being educated at the Rājkumār College, Raipur. The population of the State in 1901 was 26,368, having decreased by 27 per cent. in the previous decade, during which Chhuīkhadān was severely affected by famine. The number of inhabited villages is 107, and the density of population 171 persons per square mile. Gonds, Lodhīs, Telis, and Ahīrs are the principal castes, and the whole population speaks the Chhattīsgarhi dialect of Hindī.

Economic. The State contains a large area of fertile black soil, and 114 square miles, or 74 per cent. of the total area, were occupied for cultivation in 1904, of which 104 were under crop. *Kodon* covers 53 square miles of the cropped area, wheat 19 square miles, and rice 9,000 acres. The State forests comprise an area of only 15 square miles, and except for a little teak contain no valuable timber. The gravelled road from Dongargarh to Pandariā passes through Chhuīkhadān, and the length of 15 miles within its borders was constructed and is maintained from State funds.

Administrative. The total revenue in 1904 was Rs. 73,000, of which Rs. 56,000 was derived from land, Rs. 2,000 from forests, and Rs. 4,000 from excise. The incidence of land revenue is 11 annas 4 pies per cultivated acre. The total expenditure in the same year was Rs. 76,000, the principal items being Government tribute (Rs. 15,000), allowances to the ruling family (Rs. 7,300), general administration (Rs. 7,000), and public works (Rs. 26,000). Seven schools with 572 pupils are supported from the State funds, including a vernacular middle school at Chhuīkhadān. The expenditure on education is about Rs. 2,000. In 1901 the number of persons returned

as literate was 468, the proportion of males able to read and write being 3·6 per cent. A dispensary is maintained at Chhuīkhadān, at which about 4,800 persons were treated in 1904. The administration of the State is supervised by a Political Agent under the Commissioner, Chhattīsgarh Division.

Descriptive and historical.

Kawardhā.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, situated between 21° 50′ and 22° 30′ N. and 80° 50′ and 81° 26′ E., with an area of 798 square miles. It lies on the border of the eastern range of the Sātpurā Hills, between the Districts of Bālāghāt, Drug, Bilāspur, and Mandlā. The western half of the State consists of hill and forest country, while to the east is an open plain. Kawardhā (population, 4,772), the head-quarters, is 54 miles from Tildā station on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. The name is believed to be a corruption of Kabīrdhām or 'the seat of Kabīr,' and Kawardhā is the official head-quarters of the *mahants* of the Kabīrpanthī sect. At the village of Chhapri, 11 miles to the west of Kawardhā, is situated the fine old temple of Bhoram Deo. It is highly decorated, contains several inscriptions, and is assigned to the eleventh century. The Kawardhā family are Rāj Gonds and are related to the *zamīndārs* of Pandariā in Bilāspur, the Kawardhā branch being the junior. In the event of failure of heirs, a younger son of the Pandariā *zamīndār* succeeds. The estate was conferred for military services by Raghujī Bhonsla. The present chief, Jadunāth Singh, succeeded in 1891 at the age of six years. He is being educated at the Rājkumār College, Raipur, and during his minority the State is administered through the Political Agent for the Chhattīsgarh Feudatory States. The State contains 346 inhabited villages, and the population in 1901 was 57,474. It decreased by 37 per cent. in the preceding decade, during which Kawardhā was severely affected by famine in several years. The density is 72 persons per square mile. Gonds, Chamārs, Kurmīs, and Telis are the principal castes, and the Chhattīsgarhi dialect of Hindī is universally spoken.

Economic.

In the open country there is a considerable quantity of good black soil. Included in Kawardhā are the three subordinate *zamīndāri* estates of Boṛiā, Bhondā, and Rengākhar, with an estimated total area of 405 square miles. These have not been surveyed, and no statistics for them are available. Of the remaining area, which has been cadastrally surveyed, 242 square miles are occupied for cultivation, of which 222 are under crop. The cropped area has considerably decreased in recent years owing to the unfavourable seasons. The principal

crops are *kodon*, which covers 100 square miles, wheat 33, rice 35, and cotton 54. Only 165 acres are irrigated from wells. About 452 square miles, or more than half the total area of the State, are forest. The forests consist mainly of inferior species, and *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) is the principal timber tree. The State contains 36 miles of gravelled and 74 miles of embanked roads, constructed under the supervision of the Engineer of the Chhattīsgarh States division. The principal routes are those from Dongargarh to Pandariā, and from Kawardhā to Simgā.

The revenue of the State in 1904 amounted to Rs. 1,10,000, of which Rs. 70,000 was derived from land, Rs. 13,000 from forests, and Rs. 10,000 from excise. The system of land revenue assessment is the same as in British territory, but the headmen of villages have no proprietary rights. Excluding the *zamīndāri* estates, which pay a revenue of Rs. 1,630, the incidence of land revenue is 8 annas 9 pies per cultivated acre. The usual cesses are realized with the land revenue. The expenditure in 1904 amounted to Rs. 1,12,000, the principal items being Government tribute (Rs. 32,000), allowances to the ruling family (Rs. 13,500), public works (Rs. 9,000), general administration (Rs. 9,600), and police (Rs. 6,000). The tribute is liable to periodical revision. Since 1893 the State has allotted Rs. 1,60,000 to public works, which has been mainly expended in the construction of the roads already mentioned and of buildings for the State offices. The expenditure on education in 1904 was Rs. 2,900, from which 12 schools with about 900 pupils are maintained. Only 879 persons were returned as literate in 1901, the proportion of the male population able to read and write being 3 per cent. A dispensary has been established at Kawardhā, at which 15.000 persons were treated in 1904. The relations of the State with Government are in charge of a Political Agent, under the supervision of the Commissioner, Chhattīsgarh Division. Revenue and administration.

Saktī.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 55′ and 22° 11′ N. and 82° 45′ and 83° 2′ E., with an area of 138 square miles. It is bounded by Bilāspur District on the west and by the Raigarh State on the east. The headquarters are at Saktī (population, 1,791), a station on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. Along the north of the State extends a section of the Korbā range of hills, and beneath these a strip of undulating plain country of Chhattīsgarh tapers to the south. The ruling family are Rāj Gonds. The legend is that their ancestors were twin brothers who were soldiers of the Rājā of Sambalpur, but they only had wooden swords. When the Rājā heard of Descriptive.

this, he determined to punish them for keeping such useless weapons; and in order to expose them, he directed that they should slaughter the sacrificial buffalo on the next Dasahra festival. The brothers, on being informed of the order, were in great trepidation, but the goddess Devī appeared to them in a dream and said that all would be well. When the time came they severed the head of the buffalo with one stroke of their wooden swords. The Rājā was delighted at their marvellous performance, and asked them to name their reward. They asked for as much land as would be enclosed between the lines over which they could walk in one day. This request was granted, the Rājā thinking they would only get a small plot. The distances walked by them, however, enclosed the present Saktī State, which their descendants have since held. The swords are preserved in the family and worshipped at the Dasahra. The last chief, Rājā Ranjīt Singh, was deprived of his powers in 1875 for gross oppression and attempts to support false representations by means of forged documents, and the management of the State was assumed by the British Government. In 1892 Rūp Nārāyan Singh, the eldest son of the ex-Rājā, was installed as chief of Saktī, on his engaging that he would be guided in all matters of administration by the advice of a Dīwān appointed by Government. This restriction was subsequently removed, but was reimposed in 1902. The relations of the State with Government are in charge of a Political Agent, under the supervision of the Commissioner, Chhattīsgarh Division. The population in 1901 was 22,301, having decreased by 12 per cent. during the preceding decade. The number of inhabited villages is 122, and the density of population 162 persons per square mile. Gonds and Kawars are the most numerous castes, and the whole population speak the Chhattīsgarhi dialect of Hindī.

Economic. The yellow rice land of Chhattīsgarh extends over most of the State. No regular agricultural statistics have been prepared since 1893, in which year the last settlement of revenue was made. In 1904 it was estimated that 73 square miles, or 53 per cent. of the total area, were cultivated. Of this, 50 square miles were under rice, the other crops being *kodon* and *urad.* It is believed that there has been little alteration in the cropping since 1893. The State contains 258 irrigation tanks. The forests lie in the *sāl* belt and *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) is the principal timber tree, but there is also a little teak. Timber and other forest produce are exported, and *tasar* silk cocoons are gathered for the local demand.

The revenue in 1904 was Rs. 38,000, of which Rs. 21,000 was derived from land, Rs. 6,900 from forests, and Rs. 4,000 from excise. The State has been cadastrally surveyed, and in 1893 a summary settlement was made on a rough valuation of the village lands. The villages are generally let to *thekadārs* or farmers, and many of these have been secured against ejectment. The expenditure in 1904 was Rs. 31,000, the principal items being general administration (Rs. 11,000), expenses of the ruling family (Rs. 8,600), and repayment of loans (Rs. 1,200). The Government tribute is Rs. 1,300, and is liable to revision. The chief also owns ten villages in Bilāspur District in ordinary proprietary right. The State has not sought the assistance of the Engineer of the Chhattīsgarh States division, and manages its own public works. It supports four vernacular schools, with 280 pupils, at an annual expenditure of Rs. 400, and a dispensary at Saktī. Revenue and administration.

Raigarh State.— Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 42′ and 22° 33′ N. and 82° 57′ and 83° 48′ E., with an area of 1,486 square miles. Bilāspur and Sambalpur Districts enclose it on the west and east, while the northern portion of the State projects into the territories of Chotā Nāgpur. Along the southern border flows the Mahānadī river. The head-quarters, RAIGARH TOWN, is a station on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. The northern half of the State running up to the Chotā Nāgpur plateau consists mainly of forest-clad hills. The Chauwardhal range runs from west to east across its centre, and south of this lie the open plains of Raigarh and Bargarh divided by the Mānd, a tributary of the Mahānadī. The Kelo, another affluent, passes the town of Raigarh. The ruling family are Rāj Gonds, who say they came originally from Wairāgarh in Chānda, and obtained some villages and settled in this locality about the beginning of the eighteenth century. Jujhār Singh, the fifth Rājā, concluded a subsidiary treaty of alliance with the East India Company about 1800, on the annexation by the Marāthās of Sambalpur, to which Raigarh had hitherto been feudatory. In 1833 his son Deonāth Singh crushed a rebellion raised by the Rājā of Bargarh, and as a reward obtained that part of his territories which now constitutes the Bargarh *pargana*. He subsequently did good service in the Mutiny, and his son was made a Feudatory chief in 1867. The present chief, Bhūp Deo Singh, was born in 1869 and installed in 1894, without special restrictions as to the methods of his administration. He speaks English, and exercises a personal control over public business. The popula- Descriptive and historical.

tion of the State in 1901 was 174,929, having increased by 4 per cent. during the previous decade. The State contains one town, RAIGARH (population, 6,764), and 721 inhabited villages. The density of population is 117 persons per square mile. Raigarh lies on the border-line dividing Chhattīsgarh and the Oriyā country, 80 per cent. of its residents speaking the Chhattīsgarhi dialect and 15 per cent. Oriyā. Its population is mainly aboriginal, Kawars numbering 30,000 and Gonds 16,600. Next to these, Gāndas and Rāwats are the most numerous castes.

Economic. Black soil is found in small quantities towards the Bilāspur border, but the yellow rice land of Chhattīsgarh extends over most of the State. About 470 square miles, or 32 per cent. of the total area, were occupied for cultivation in 1904, of which 375 square miles were under crop. About 80 per cent. of the cultivated area is under rice, and next to this the most important crops are pulses covering 28,000 acres, *til* 9,000, and *kodon* 8,000. The cropped area has increased by 11 per cent since 1881. More than 1,800 tanks have been constructed for irrigation, which supply water to 7,000 acres under normal circumstances. About 500 square miles, or a third of the whole area, are under forest. The principal timber trees are *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), *sāj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), and *bījāsāl* (*Pterocarpus Marsupium*). Iron ore and coal have been found in the State; the former is worked by native methods, and agricultural implements are exported to the neighbouring territories. *Tasar* silk of a superior quality is made at Raigarh. Among the local products may be noted cucumber seeds, which are exported to a considerable extent. The main line of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway passes through the centre of the State, with stations at Raigarh, Nāharpāli, Khursiā, and Jamgaon. Four miles of metalled and 212 miles of unmetalled roads have been constructed. The principal routes are those from Raigarh to Sārangarh, Padampur, and Lailangā, and from Khursiā to Dhabrā.

Revenue and administration. The total revenue in 1904 was Rs. 1,50,000, of which Rs. 68,000 was derived from land, Rs. 34,000 from forests, and Rs. 30,000 from excise. A cadastral survey has been carried out, and the system of land revenue assessment is based on that in force in British territory. The revenue is settled with the headmen of villages, who are allowed to retain a portion of the 'assets,' but have no proprietary rights. The incidence of land revenue is less than 4 annas per occupied acre. The expenditure in 1904 was Rs. 1,31,000, the principal

items being Government tribute (Rs. 4,000), expenses of the ruling family (Rs. 34,000), administration in all departments (Rs. 55,000), and public works (Rs. 31,000). The tribute is liable to periodical revision. The expenditure on public works since 1893, under the supervision of the Engineer of the Chhattīsgarh States division, has amounted to Rs. 1,36,000, including the construction of the roads already mentioned, a number of tanks, various buildings for public offices and schools, and a residence for the chief. The educational institutions comprise 24 schools with 1,786 pupils, including English and vernacular middle schools and 2 girls' schools. The expenditure on education in 1904 was Rs. 7,800. In 1901 the number of persons returned as literate was 2,963, the proportion of males able to read and write being 3·3 per cent. A dispensary is maintained at Raigarh town, at which 37,000 persons were treated in 1904. A Political Agent under the supervision of the Commissioner, Chhattīsgarh Division, controls the relations of the State with Government.

Raigarh Town.—Head-quarters of the Feudatory State of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 54′ N. and 83° 24′ E., on the Kelo river, and on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, 363 miles from Calcutta. Population (1901), 6,764. The town contains an old fort built at the time of the Marāthā invasions. Raigarh is a centre for local trade, and is increasing in importance. The principal industry is the manufacture of *tasar* silk cloth, considerable quantities of which are exported. Glass bangles are also made. Raigarh possesses an English school, a primary school, a girls' school, and a dispensary.

Descriptive and historical.

Sārangarh State.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 21′ and 21° 45′ N. and 82° 56′ and 83° 26′ E., with an area of 540 square miles. It is situated between Bilāspur and Sambalpur Districts on the west and east, while the Mahānadī river divides it from the Raigarh State and the Chandarpur *zamīndāri* on the north. The head-quarters, Sārangarh, is 32 miles from Raigarh station on the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. The country is generally level; but a chain of hills runs from north to south across the centre of the State dividing the Sārangarh and Sariā *parganas*, and another range extends along the southern border adjoining the Phuljhar *zamīndāri* of Raipur. The ruling family are Rāj Gonds, who, according to their own traditions, migrated from Bhandāra many generations ago. Sārangarh was at first a dependency of the Ratanpur kingdom, and afterwards became one of the eighteen Garhjāt States subordinate to Sambalpur.

It has been under Government management since 1878, in consequence of the deaths of two chiefs at short intervals. The present chief, Lāl Jawāhir Singh, was born in 1886 and is now (1906) being educated at the Rājkumār College, Raipur. During his minority Sārangarh is administered by the Political Agent for the Chhattīsgarh Feudatory States. The population in 1901 was 79,900, having decreased by 4 per cent. during the previous decade. There are one town, SĀRANGARH (population, 5,227), and 455 inhabited villages, and the density of population is 147 persons per square mile. About three-fourths of the population speak the Chhattīsgarhi dialect of Hindī, and the remainder the Oriyā language, and these statistics indicate the proportions in which the population has been recruited from Chhattīsgarh and Orissa. The forest tribes are not found in large numbers, and the principal castes are Gāndas, Rāwats or Gahrās, Chamārs, and Koltās.

Economic. The soil is generally light and sandy and of inferior quality, but the cultivators are industrious, and supplement its deficiencies by manure and irrigation. In 1904 the area occupied for cultivation amounted to 254 square miles, or 47 per cent. of the total area, having increased by 26 per cent. since the last revenue settlement in 1888. The cropped area amounts to 212 square miles, of which rice occupies 163 square miles, *urad* 8,000 acres, and *kodon* 6,000. There are about 790 tanks and 600 wells, from which about 10,000 acres can be irrigated under normal circumstances. The forests occur in patches all over the open country, and are not extensive or valuable. There is a small quantity of *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), but the bulk of the forests are composed of inferior trees. Iron ore is found in small quantities in two or three localities. *Tasar* silk and coarse country cloth are the only manufactures. The State contains 57 miles of gravelled and 40 miles of embanked roads. The principal outlet for produce is the Sārangarh-Raigarh road. There is also some traffic from Seraipāli to Sārangarh, and from Sariā to Raigarh.

Revenue and administration. The total revenue of the State in 1904 was Rs. 80,000, of which Rs. 50,000 was derived from land, Rs. 8,000 from forests, and Rs. 9,000 from excise. The village areas have been cadastrally surveyed, and a regular settlement on the system followed in British territory was effected in 1904. The land revenue was raised by Rs. 9,000 or 21 per cent., the incidence being about 5 annas per cultivated acre. The total expenditure in 1904 was Rs. 67,000, the principal items being Government tribute (Rs. 3,500), allowances to the chief's family (Rs. 11,000),

general administration (Rs. 8,800), police (Rs. 4,600), and public works (Rs. 14,000). The tribute is liable to periodical revision. During eleven years since 1893 a sum of 1·74 lakhs has been spent on public works, under the supervision of the Engineer of the Chhattīsgarh States division. In addition to the roads already mentioned, various buildings have been constructed for public offices. The educational institutions comprise 18 schools with 1,472 pupils, including 2 vernacular middle schools and a girls' school. In 1901 the number of persons returned as literate was 2,426, the proportion of the males able to read and write being 6 per cent. These results compare not unfavourably with the average for neighbouring British Districts. The expenditure on education in 1904 was Rs. 4,500. A dispensary is maintained at Sārangarh, at which 16,000 patients were treated in 1904.

Sārangarh Town.—Head-quarters of the Feudatory State of the same name, Central Provinces, situated in 21° 35′ N. and 83° 5′ E., 32 miles by road from Raigarh railway station. Population (1901), 5,227. Within the town is a large tank with a row of temples on the northern bank, the oldest temple being that of Somleswarī Devī, built 200 years ago by a Dīwān of the State. The only important industry is the weaving of *tasar* silk cloth, in which about fifty families are engaged. Sārangarh possesses a vernacular middle school, a girls' school, and a dispensary.

Jashpur.—Tributary State in the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 17′ and 23° 15′ N. and 83° 30′ and 84° 24′ E., with an area of 1,948[1] square miles. Till 1905 it was included in the Chotā Nāgpur States of Bengal. It is bounded on the north and west by the Surgujā State; on the east by the Rānchī District of Bengal; and on the south by Gāngpur, Udaipur, and Raigarh. Jashpur consists in almost equal proportions of highland and lowland. On the Rānchī side the magnificent table-land of UPARGHĀT attains an average elevation of 2,200 feet above the sea, and is fringed by hills which in places rise a thousand feet higher. On the east the Upraghāt blends with the plateau of Chotā Nāgpur proper; while on the west it springs from the lowland region known as the Hetghāt in a scarped fortress-like wall, buttressed here and there by projecting masses of rock. The Uparghāt again is divided by a slight depression from the still loftier plateau of KHURIĀ,

[1] This figure, which differs from the area shown in the Census Report of 1901, was supplied by the Surveyor-General.

which occupies the north-western corner of the State, forming the watershed between the Ib and the Kanhar, a tributary of the river Son. This plateau consists of trap-rock topped with volcanic laterite, overlying the granite and gneiss which form the surface rocks at lower elevations. The lowlands of the Hetghāt and of Jashpur proper lie in successive steps descending towards the south, broken by ranges of low hills, isolated bluffs, and bare masses of gneiss and other metamorphic rocks. The granite of this low region frequently rises into bare round knolls, the most conspicuous of which is called the Burha from its fancied resemblance to an old man's bald head. The principal peaks are RĀNĪJULA (3,527 feet), KOTWAR (3,393 feet), and BHARAMURIO (3,390 feet). The chief river is the Ib, which flows through the State from north to south. Several waterfalls are found along its course, the finest being formed by the rush of its waters over a square mass of trap-rock, where it passes from the high table-land of the Uparghāt into the flat country of Jashpur proper. Owing to numerous rapids, the river is not navigable below these falls. The smaller rivers of Jashpur are mere hill streams, all of which are fordable except at brief intervals during the rains. In the north these are feeders of the Kanhar, and flow towards the valley of the Ganges, while on the south they run into the Ib and contribute to the river system of Orissa. Gold is obtained in small quantities from the banks and bed of the Ib river, near the Gāngpur border, by the Jhorā Gonds, who wash the soil; they make over the gold to the Rājā and are paid by him in rice. Iron is procured in a nodular form in the hilly tracts, and is smelted by aboriginal tribes for export. The forests consist largely of *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), *sissū* (*Dalbergia Sissoo*), and ebony (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), but owing to their distance from the railway there is as yet little demand for the timber; those near the Gāngpur border have recently, however, been leased to a contractor. Besides timber, the chief jungle products are lac, *tasar* silk, and beeswax, all of which are exported, *sabai* grass (*Ischaemum angustifolium*), and a large number of edible roots and indigenous drugs. The jungles contain tigers, leopards, wolves, bears, buffaloes, bison, and many kinds of deer.

The State of Jashpur was ceded to the British Government by the provisional agreement concluded with Mudhojī Bhonsla in 1818. Although noticed in the second article of this agreement as a separate State, Jashpur was at first treated in some measure as a fief of Surgujā, and the tribute, the amount

of which was last fixed in 1899 at Rs. 1,250, is still paid through that State. The chief, however, is not bound to render any feudal service to Surgujā. The population increased from 113,636 in 1891 to 132,114 in 1901. They dwell in 566 villages, and the density is 68 persons to the square mile. The large increase is due chiefly to the inducements held out to immigrants to settle in the State, where the area of cultivable waste is very large. The people have also benefited by the introduction of sugar-cane and wheat cultivation, and roads have been constructed from the capital to the borders of Rānchī, Surgujā, Udaipur, and Gāngpur. The most numerous castes and tribes are Oraons (47,000), Rautias (12,000), Korwās (10,000), Ahīrs or Goālās and Nagesias (9,000 each), and Chiks and Kaurs (7,000 each). A rebellion of the Korwās gave considerable trouble some years ago. Pāndrapāt and the table-lands of the Khuriā plateau afford excellent pasturage, and Ahīrs or cowherds from Mirzāpur and elsewhere bring large herds of cattle to graze, the fees paid by them being a considerable source of income to the State. Many Ahīrs have settled permanently in Khuriā. The trade is confined to food-grains, oilseeds, and jungle products, and is carried on by means of pack-bullocks.

The relations of the chief with the British Government are regulated by a *sanad* granted in 1899, and reissued in 1905 with a few verbal changes due to the transfer of the State to the Central Provinces. Under this *sanad* the chief was formally recognized and permitted to administer his territory subject to prescribed conditions, and the tribute was fixed for a further period of twenty years, at the end of which it is liable to revision. The chief is under the general control of the Commissioner of Chhattīsgarh as regards all important matters of administration, including the settlement and collection of land revenue, the imposition of taxes, the administration of justice, arrangements connected with excise, salt, and opium, and disputes in which other States are concerned; and he cannot levy import and export dues or transit duties, unless they are specially authorized by the Chief Commissioner. He is permitted to levy rents and certain other customary dues from his subjects, and is empowered to pass sentences of imprisonment up to five years and of fine to the extent of Rs. 200, but sentences of imprisonment for more than two years and of fine exceeding Rs. 50 require the confirmation of the Commissioner. Heinous offences calling for heavier punishment are dealt with by the Political Agent, Chhattīsgarh Feudatories,

who exercises the powers of a District Magistrate and Assistant Sessions Judge; the Commissioner occupies the position of a Sessions Court in respect of such cases, while the functions of a High Court are performed by the Chief Commissioner.

The revenue of the State from all sources in 1904-5 was Rs. 1,26,000, of which Rs. 50,000 was derived from land revenue, Rs. 11,000 from excise, and Rs. 7,000 from forest revenue. The expenditure in the same year was Rs. 1,05,000, including Rs. 22,000 spent on administration, Rs. 35,000 on domestic charges, and Rs. 6,000 on public works. The State maintains 199 miles of roads. The current revenue demand is Rs. 60,000 per annum, collected through lease-holders, called *thekadārs*, with whom the villages are settled. The latter fix and collect the assessment payable by each cultivator in the village, and the amount is not changed during the term of the settlement. The *thekadārs* have no rights beyond that period, but the lease is generally renewed with the old *thekadār*, and a son generally succeeds his father, though no hereditary rights are recognized. The State maintains a police force of 12 officers and 35 men, and there is also a body of village police who receive a monthly salary. There is a jail with accommodation for 102 prisoners at JASHPURNAGAR, where the State also maintains a dispensary at which 2,000 patients were treated in 1904-5. In the same year 6,000 persons were successfully vaccinated. In 1901 only 862 persons could read and write; but some new schools have been opened by the State since that time, and in 1904-5 there were 15 schools with an attendance of 300 pupils.

Bharamurio.—Hill in the Jashpur State, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 55′ N., and 83° 32′ E., and rising to a height of 3,390 feet above sea-level.

Jashpurnagar (or Jagdīspur).—Head-quarters of the Jashpur State, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 53′ N. and 84° 8′ E. Population (1901), 1,654. It contains the residence of the chief, a dispensary, and a jail.

Khuriā.—Plateau in the Jashpur State, Central Provinces, occupying the north-western portion of the State, and lying between 23° 0′ and 23° 14′ N. and 83° 30′ and 83° 44′ E. It consists of trap-rock topped with volcanic laterite, overlying the granite and gneiss which form the surface rocks at lower elevations. The plateau affords excellent pasturage, and Ahīrs or cowherds from Mirzāpur and elsewhere drive in large herds of cattle to graze; many such Ahīrs have settled here permanently.

Kotwar.—Hill in the Jashpur State, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 9′ N. and 83° 57′ E., about 9 miles north-east of Sanna, and rising to a height of 3,393 feet above sea-level.

Rānījula.—Hill in the Jashpur State, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 0′ N. and 83° 36′ E., and rising to a height of 3,527 feet above sea-level.

Uparghāt.—Table-land in the east of the Jashpur State, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 49′ and 23° 0′ N. and 84° 10′ and 84° 22′ E. On the Rānchī side it attains an average elevation of 2,200 feet above the sea, and is fringed by hills which in places rise a thousand feet higher. Approached from the east, the Uparghāt blends with, and forms an integral part of, the plateau of Chotā Nāgpur proper; while on the west it springs from the lowland region known as the Hetghāt in a scarped, fortress-like wall, buttressed here and there by projecting masses of rock. On this side the passes are extremely difficult, being unsafe for horsemen and utterly inaccessible to wheeled traffic. The Uparghāt again is divided by a slight depression from the still loftier plateau of Khuriā, which occupies the north-western corner of the State.

Surgujā.—Feudatory State in the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 38′ and 24° 6′ N. and 82° 31′ and 84° 5′ E., with an area of 6,089[1] square miles. Till 1905 it was included in the Chotā Nāgpur States of Bengal. It is bounded on the north by the Mirzāpur District of the United Provinces and the State of Rewah; on the east by the Palāmau and Rānchī Districts of Bengal; on the south by the Jashpur and Udaipur States and the District of Bilāspur; and on the west by Koreā State.

Surgujā may be described in very general terms as a secluded basin, walled in on the north, east, and south by massive hill barriers and protected from approach on the west by the forest-clad tract of Koreā. Its most important physical features are the MAINPĀT, a magnificent table-land forming the southern barrier of the State, and the JAMĪRĀPĀT, a long winding ridge which is part of its eastern boundary. From the Jamīrāpāt, isolated hill ranges and the peculiar formations locally known as *pāts* rise to an elevation of 3,500 and 4,000 feet, forming on the north the boundary of Palāmau and blending on the south with the hill system of northern Jashpur. In the valley of the

[1] This figure, which differs slightly from the area shown in the Census Report of 1901, was supplied by the Surveyor-General.

Kanhar river there is an abrupt descent of 900 feet from the table-land of the east to the fairly level country of central Surgujā, which here divides into two broad stretches of fertile and well-tilled land. One of these runs south towards Udaipur and separates the Mainpāt from the wild high lands of Khuriā in Jashpur; the other trends to the west and, opening out as it goes, forms the main area of cultivated land in the State. The principal peaks are MAILĀN (4,024 feet), Jām (3,827 feet), and Partaghārsa (3,804 feet). The chief rivers are the Kanhar, Rehar, and Māhān, which flow northwards towards the Son, and the Sānkh, which takes a southerly course to join the Brāhmanī. The watershed in which all these rivers rise crosses the State of Surgujā from east to west, and extends through the States of Koreā and Chāng Bhakār farther into the Central Provinces. None of the rivers is navigable, and the only boats used are the small canoes kept at some of the fords of the Rehar and Kanhar. The table-land and hill ranges in the east of the State are composed of metamorphic rocks, which here form a barrier between Surgujā and Chotā Nāgpur proper. In central Surgujā this metamorphic formation gives place to the low-lying carboniferous area of the Bisrāmpur coal-field; and this again is succeeded farther west by coarse sandstone, overlying the metamorphic rocks which crop up here and there. The chief tree is the *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), which abounds everywhere. Tigers, leopards, bears, buffaloes, bison, and many kinds of deer are found.

The early history of Surgujā is obscure, but according to a local tradition in Palāmau the present ruling family is said to be descended from a Raksel Rājā of Palāmau. In 1758 a Marāthā army in progress to the Ganges overran the State, and compelled its chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Bhonsla Rājā. At the end of the eighteenth century, in consequence of the chief having aided a rebellion in Palāmau against the British, an expedition entered Surgujā; but though order was temporarily restored, disputes again broke out between the chief and his relations, necessitating British interference. Until 1818 the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness; but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under the provisional agreement concluded with Mudhojī Bhonsla of Berār, and order was soon restored. In 1826 the chief was invested with the title of Mahārājā. The present chief, who attained his majority in 1882, received the title of Mahārājā Bahādur in 1895 as a personal distinction. The State pays Rs. 2,500

annually to Government as tribute, but this amount is subject to revision. The chief archaeological remains are the stone gateways, rock caves, and tunnel on RĀMGARH HILL, and the deserted fortress at JŪBA.

The recorded population increased from 182,831 in 1872 to 270,311 in 1881, to 324,552 in 1891, and to 351,011 in 1901; but the earlier enumerations were very defective. The people live in 1,372 villages, and the density is 58 persons to the square mile. Hindus number 204,228, Animists 142,783, and Muhammadans 3,999. The majority of the inhabitants are Dravidian aborigines, the most numerous castes being Gonds (83,000), Goālās and Pāns (30,000 each), Kaurs and Oraons (29,000 each), Rajwārs (18,000), Korwās (16,000), Kharwārs (14,000), and Bhumijs (10,000), while among other aboriginal tribes Bhuiyās, Cheros, Ghāsis, Mundās, Nagesias, and Santāls are also represented.

Practically, the entire population is dependent on agriculture. The soils and systems of cultivation are similar to those in Rānchī and Palāmau Districts, but many of the aboriginal tribes on the hills and plateaux practise *jhūming*. The principal crops grown are rice and other cereals, including wheat, barley, oats, maize, *maruā*, *gondli*, and *kodon*; also gram and other pulses, oilseeds, cotton, *san*-hemp, and flax. Cultivation is extending, but large tracts are still covered with unreclaimed jungle. The State contains extensive grazing grounds, to which large herds of cattle from Mirzāpur and Palāmau are sent every year.

The forests are of the same general character as those of Palāmau; they consist chiefly of *sāl*, but, owing to the distance from the railway, they are at present of very little value. The principal jungle products other than timber are lac, *tasar* silk, and catechu. It has been estimated that the coal measures of the Bisrāmpur field occupy an area of about 400 square miles, but no systematic prospecting has been done. Traces of lead are found.

There are fair roads from Bisrāmpur to the border of the Udaipur State and to Lerua, and another from Dora to Partābpur; an extensive trade in jungle products, oilseeds, and *ghī* is carried on by means of pack-bullocks. Altogether 410 miles of road are maintained by the State, but these are chiefly fair-weather tracks.

The relations of the chief with the British Government are regulated by a *sanad* granted in 1899, and reissued in 1905 with a few verbal changes due to the transfer of the State to

the Central Provinces. Under this *sanad* the chief was formally recognized and permitted to administer his territory subject to prescribed conditions, and the tribute was fixed for a further period of twenty years, at the end of which it is liable to revision. The chief is under the general control of the Commissioner of Chhattīsgarh as regards all important matters of administration, including the settlement and collection of land revenue, the imposition of taxes, the administration of justice, arrangements connected with excise, salt, and opium, and disputes in which other States are concerned; and he cannot levy import and export duties or transit dues, unless they are specially authorized by the Chief Commissioner. He is permitted to levy rents and certain other customary dues from his subjects, and is empowered to pass sentences of imprisonment up to five years and of fine to the extent of Rs. 200; but sentences of imprisonment for more than two years and of fine exceeding Rs. 50 require the confirmation of the Commissioner. Heinous offences calling for heavier punishment are dealt with by the Political Agent, Chhattīsgarh Feudatories, who exercises the powers of a District Magistrate and Assistant Sessions Judge; the Commissioner occupies the position of a Sessions Court in respect of such cases, while the functions of a High Court are performed by the Chief Commissioner.

The revenue of the State in 1904–5 was Rs. 1,27,000, of which Rs. 72,000 was derived from land and Rs. 23,000 from excise. The expenditure in the same year was Rs. 1,26,500, including Rs. 34,000 expended on administration, Rs. 12,000 on domestic charges, and Rs. 8,000 on public works. The current revenue demand is Rs. 80,000; and the State is divided for revenue purposes into 22 *tappās* or *parganas*, of which 6 are maintenance grants held by the junior branches of the chief's family, 4 belong to *jāgīrdārs* or *ilākadārs*, and the remaining 12 are in the immediate control of the Mahārājā himself. The collection of revenue in the latter is made through *tahsīldārs*, while the rent for the *ilākadāri* and maintenance tenures is paid direct into the State treasury by the holders. The *ilākadārs* hold their lands in perpetuity and pay rent to the Mahārājā; and the *jāgīrdārs* also hold in perpetuity on payment of a quit-rent with certain feudal conditions, which for the most part have fallen into disuse. Both these tenures are resumable by the Mahārājā, on the failure of direct male heirs to the grantee. The State contains 18 *thānas*, and the police force consists (1904–5) of 25 officers

and 134 men, maintained at a cost of Rs. 10,000. In addition, there is a body of rural police, called *goraits*, who are remunerated by grants of land and are also paid in kind. The State jail is at Bisrāmpur, and prisoners sentenced to terms of imprisonment not exceeding two years are detained here. The only schools in the State are 11 *pāthshālas*; and in 1901 only 900 persons could read and write. There is a charitable dispensary at Bisrāmpur, at which 2,150 out-patients were treated during 1904–5; a fine new building, which will be used for a dispensary and hospital, has recently been constructed. Vaccination is carried on by licensed vaccinators, and 14,400 persons were successfully vaccinated in 1904–5.

[Sir W. W. Hunter, *Statistical Account of Bengal*, 1877, vol. xvii; and *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India*, vol. vi.]

Bisrāmpur.—Head-quarters of the Surgujā State, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 7′ N. and 83° 12′ E. Population (1901), 3,279. The village contains the residence of the chief, a jail, and a charitable dispensary. Bisrāmpur has given its name to a coal measure extending over about 400 square miles in the eastern portion of the comparatively low ground in the centre of Surgujā State. Good coal exists in abundance, but no borings have yet been made. At present, the distance of the field from the railway precludes the possibility of the coal being worked.

Jamīrāpāt.—A long winding ridge about 2 miles wide in the Surgujā State, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 22′ and 23° 29′ N. and 83° 33′ and 83° 41′ E. It rises to a height of 3,500 feet and forms part of the eastern boundary of the State where it borders on Chotā Nāgpur proper.

Jūba.—Deserted fortress in the Surgujā State, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 43′ N. and 83° 26′ E., about 2 miles south-east of Mānpurā village. The fort stands on the rocky shoulder of a hill, and commands a deep gorge overgrown with jungle. Hidden among the trees are the remains of carved temples, almost covered with accumulations of vegetable mould.

Mailān.—Hill in the Surgujā State, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 31′ N. and 83° 37′ E., and rising to a height of 4,024 feet above sea-level.

Mainpāt.—A magnificent table-land in the Surgujā State, Central Provinces, 18 miles long and 6 to 8 miles broad, lying between 22° 46′ and 22° 54′ N. and 83° 8′ and 83° 24′ E. It rises to a height of 3,781 feet above the sea and forms the

southern barrier of the State. From the southern face of the plateau, which is mainly composed of gneiss and ironstone, long spurs strike out into the plains of Udaipur, while the northern side is a massive wall of sandstone, indented like a coast-line with isolated bluffs standing up in front of the cliffs from which they have been parted. The plateau is well watered throughout, and affords, during the summer months, abundant grazing for the cattle of Mirzāpur and Bihār.

Rāmgarh Hill.—Hill in the Surgujā State, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 53′ N. and 82° 55′ E. It consists of a rectangular mass of sandstone rising abruptly from the plain, about 12 miles west of Lakshmanpur village. It is ascended from the northern side by a path which follows the ridge of an outlying spur nearly as far as the base of the main rock. Here, at a height of 2,600 feet, is an ancient stone gateway, on the lintel of which is sculptured an image of Ganesh. A little to the west but at the same level, a constant stream of pure water wells out, in a natural grotto, from a fissure in the massive bed of sandstone. A second gateway crowns the most difficult part of the ascent. Colonel Dalton considered this to be the best executed and most beautiful architectural relic in the entire region, which abounds in remains indicating a previous occupation of the country by some race more highly civilized than its present inhabitants. Though the origin of these gateways is unknown, the second is unquestionably the more modern work, and belongs to that description of Hindu architecture which bears most resemblance to the Saracenic. On the hill are several rock caves and the remains of several temples made of enormous blocks of stone. One of the most striking features is the singular tunnel in the northern face of the rock, known as the Hāthīpol, which, as its name implies, is so large that an elephant can pass through it. Its formation is supposed to be due to the trickling of water through crevices in the sandstone, and it bears no trace of human workmanship. It is about 150 feet long and 20 feet in height by 32 in breadth. In the valley on which this tunnel opens are two caves with inscriptions dating back to the second century B.C. One of them, the Jogīmārā cave, has traces on its roof of wall paintings 2,000 years old, and the other, the Sītābengā cave, is believed to have been used as a hall in which plays were acted and poems recited.

[*Archaeological Survey Reports*, vol. xi, pp. 41–5; and *Report of Archaeological Surveyor, Bengal Circle*, for 1903–4.]

Udaipur State.—Tributary State in the Central Provinces,

lying between 22° 3′ and 22° 47′ N. and 83° 2′ and 83° 48′ E., with an area of 1,052[1] square miles. Till 1905 it was included in the Chotā Nāgpur States of Bengal. It is bounded on the north by Surgujā; on the east by Jashpur and Raigarh; on the south by Raigarh; and on the west by the District of Bilāspur. On the north it is walled in by the great plateau of Mainpāt in Surgujā, which rises to a height of 3,781 feet above the sea. From the edge of this table-land, which forms the watershed for streams running north and south, a steep descent of 1,500 feet leads down to the fertile valley of the river Mānd, and is continued in a succession of terraces to Raigarh on the southern boundary of the State. The chief geological formation of the State is a coarse, carboniferous sandstone, appearing on the west in a low range of hills which divides the small river Koergā from the Mānd. Coal, gold, iron, mica, laterite, and limestone exist, but no regular investigation has yet been made into the mineral resources of the State. A coal-field situated 2 miles east of Dharmjaygarh is worked for brick burning, and lime is extracted from a limestone quarry about 8 miles north-east of the town. The only hill of any size is Lotta (2,098 feet). The river Mānd, which rises in Surgujā and receives the drainage of the southern face of the Mainpāt plateau, follows a winding course towards the south-west and joins the Mahānadī in Raigarh. The channel is deeply cut through the sandstone rocks in a series of alternate rapids and pools, and the river is not navigable in any part of its course within Udaipur. The scenery is wild; and forests, which are at present of no great marketable value owing to the want of good means of communication, cover the greater portion of the State. The principal trees are *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), *mahuā* (*Bassia latifolia*), *kusum* (*Schleichera trijuga*), and *tendu* (*Diospyros melanoxylon*). The jungles contain tigers, bears, leopards, wild hog, bison, and many kinds of deer; wild elephants occasionally stray in from the south.

Udaipur, in common with the rest of the Surgujā group of States, was ceded to the British Government by the provisional agreement concluded with Mudhojī Bhonsla (Appa Sāhib) in 1818. Ever since the conquest of Surgujā by the Raksel Rājputs, Udaipur formed an apanage of a younger branch of the reigning family in that State; and at the time of its transfer to the British, Kalyān Singh, then chief of Udaipur, paid tribute

[1] This figure, which differs slightly from the area shown in the Census Report of 1901, was supplied by the Surveyor-General.

through Surgujā. In 1852 the chief and his two brothers were convicted of manslaughter and sentenced to imprisonment, and Udaipur escheated to Government. At the time of the Mutiny in 1857 the former chief and his brothers made their way back to Udaipur and established a short-lived rule. In 1859 the survivor of the two brothers was captured, convicted of murder and rebellion, and transported for life to the Andaman Islands. Subsequently in 1860 the State was conferred on a brother of the chief of Surgujā, who had rendered good service during the Mutiny. His grandson, the present Rājā, is a minor, and the State is under Government management.

The recorded population rose from 37,536 in 1891 to 45,391 in 1901; this large increase is due partly to a more accurate enumeration, and partly to the country having been rendered more accessible by the opening of the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway. The population is contained in 196 villages, and the density is 43 persons to the square mile. Hindus number 41,373 and Animists 3,897. The aboriginal Kaurs (18,000) are the most numerous tribe, but the Bhuiyās, Chiks, Gonds, Majwārs, Mundās, Oraons, and Pāns, with from 2,000 to 4,000 each, are also well represented. About three-fourths of the population are agriculturists, and the majority of the remainder are labourers indirectly dependent on agriculture. The staple food-grain is rice, supplemented by Indian corn and various pulses. Rice, *mahuā*, *chiranji* (an edible, oily nut like the pistachio), horns, hides, wax, lac, and *ghī* are exported; and salt, tobacco, cotton cloth, *gur*, and spices are imported.

The relations of the chief with the British Government are regulated by a *sanad* granted in 1899, and reissued in 1905 with a few verbal changes due to the transfer of the State to the Central Provinces. Under this *sanad* the chief was formally recognized and permitted to administer his territory subject to prescribed conditions, and the tribute was fixed for a further period of twenty years, at the end of which it is liable to revision. The chief is under the general control of the Commissioner of Chhattīsgarh as regards all important matters of administration, including the settlement and collection of land revenue, the imposition of taxes, the administration of justice, arrangements connected with excise, salt, and opium, and disputes in which other States are concerned; and he cannot levy import and export duties or transit dues, unless they are specially authorized by the Chief Commissioner. He is permitted to levy rents and certain other customary dues from his subjects, and is

empowered to pass sentences of imprisonment up to five years and of fine to the extent of Rs. 200; but sentences of imprisonment for more than two years and of fine exceeding Rs. 50 require the confirmation of the Commissioner. Heinous offences calling for heavier punishment are dealt with by the Political Agent, Chhattīsgarh Feudatories, who exercises the powers of a District Magistrate and Assistant Sessions Judge; the Commissioner occupies the position of a Sessions Court in respect of such cases, while the functions of a High Court are performed by the Chief Commissioner.

The total revenue of the State in 1904–5 was one lakh, of which Rs. 54,000 was derived from land and Rs. 11,900 from forests; the expenditure was Rs. 78,000, including Rs. 37,000 expended on administration, Rs. 11,000 on domestic charges, and Rs. 13,000 on public works. The finances are prosperous, and the State has 1½ lakhs invested in Government securities. The tribute payable to Government is Rs. 800, and the current revenue demand is Rs. 70,000 per annum, the collection of the revenue in each village being usually let out to the highest bidder, who is known as the *gaontiā* or headman. The State maintains a salaried police force of 7 officers and 50 men, in addition to the village police, who are remunerated by grants of land; the cost of maintaining the former in 1904–5 was Rs. 4,500. There is a jail at DHARMJAYGARH with accommodation for 50 prisoners, and a dispensary at which 5,700 patients, both indoor and outdoor, were treated in the same year; a new hospital has also recently been built. Altogether 215 miles of roads are now maintained by the State. In 1901 only 229 persons were able to read and write, but since the management of the State was undertaken by Government, 4 primary schools have been opened; there were 9 schools in 1904–5 with an attendance of 250 pupils. In the same year 1,340 persons were successfully vaccinated.

Dharmjaygarh (formerly known as Rābkob).—Headquarters of the Udaipur State, Central Provinces, situated in 22° 29′ N. and 83° 14′ E., on a picturesque bend of the Mānd river near the centre of the State. On the summit of the cliff, which here rises from the right bank of the river, is Shāhpur or Saipur, the old castle of the Rājās of Udaipur, built in an almost impregnable position, 150 feet above the stream. Dharmjaygarh contains a police station, a jail with accommodation for 50 prisoners, a hospital, and a dispensary.

Koreā.—Tributary State in the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 56′ and 23° 48′ N. and 81° 56′ and 82° 47′ E.,

with an area of 1,631[1] square miles. Till 1905 it was included in the Chotā Nāgpur States of Bengal. It is bounded on the north by Rewah State; on the east by Surgujā; on the south by Bilāspur District; and on the west by the States of Chāng Bhakār and Rewah. It consists of an elevated tableland of coarse sandstone, from which spring several abruptly scarped plateaux, varying in height and irregularly distributed over the surface. The general level of the lower table-land is about 1,800 feet above the sea. On the east this rises abruptly into the Sonhāt plateau, with an elevation of 2,477 feet. The north of the State is occupied by a still higher table-land, with a maximum elevation of 3,367 feet. In the west a group of hills culminates in the DEOGARH PEAK (3,370 feet), the highest point in Koreā. The lofty Sonhāt plateau forms the watershed of streams which flow in three different directions: on the west to the river Gopath, which has its source in one of the ridges of the Deogarh peak and divides Koreā from Chāng Bhakār; on the north-east to the Son; while the streams of the southern slopes feed the Heshto or Hasdo, the largest river of Koreā, which runs nearly north and south throughout the State into Bilāspur District and eventually falls into the Mahānadī. Its course is rocky throughout, and there is a fine waterfall near Kirwāhi. In the past tigers and wild elephants used to commit serious depredations and caused the desertion of many small villages, but their numbers have been considerably reduced. Bison, wild buffaloes, *sāmbar* (*Cervus unicolor*), *nīlgai* (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*), ravine deer (*Gazella bennetti*), hog deer, mouse deer, and bears are common.

The State was ceded to the British Government in 1818. In early times there had been some indefinite feudal relations with the State of Surgujā, but these were ignored by the British Government. The chief's family call themselves Chauhān Rājputs, and profess to trace back their descent to a chief of the Chauhān clan who conquered Koreā several centuries ago. The direct line became extinct in 1897, and the present chief, Rājā Seo Mangal Singh Deo, belongs to a collateral branch of the family. The country is very wild and barren, and is inhabited mainly by migratory aborigines; the population decreased from 36,240 in 1891 to 35,113 in 1901, the density being only 22 persons to the square mile. The

[1] This figure, which differs from the area shown in the Census Report of 1901, was supplied by the Surveyor-General.

State contains 250 villages, one of which, Sonhāt, lying at the foot of the Sonhāt plateau and on its northern edge, is the residence of the chief. On the highest table-land, which stretches for nearly 40 miles to the borders of Chāng Bhakār, there are only 37 hamlets inhabited by Cheros, who practise *jhūming* and also carry on a little plough cultivation on their homestead lands. Hindus number 24,430 and Animists 10,395. There are 10,000 Gonds; and Goālās, Kaurs, and Rajwārs number 3,000 each. The people are almost entirely dependent on agriculture for a livelihood, but the aboriginal tribes also supplement the meagre produce of their fields with various edible fruits and roots from the jungles.

Koreā contains extensive forests consisting chiefly of *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*), and bamboos are also abundant. Some forests in the western part, which lie near the Bengal-Nāgpur Railway, have been leased to timber merchants; but in the remainder of the State the forests contain no trees of any commercial value. The minor jungle products include lac and *khair* (*Acacia Catechu*), besides several drugs and edible roots. In the forests there is good pasturage, which is used extensively by cattle-breeders from the Rewah State and elsewhere, on payment of certain fixed rates. Iron is found everywhere, but mineral rights belong to the British Government. Traders from Mirzāpur, Bilāspur, and Benares import sugar, tobacco, molasses, spices, salt, and cloths, and export stick-lac, resin, rice, and other food-grains. The State contains footpaths but no regular roads, and trade is carried on by means of pack-bullocks.

The relations of the chief with the British Government are regulated by a *sanad* granted in 1899, and reissued in 1905 with a few verbal changes due to the transfer of the State to the Central Provinces. Under this *sanad* the chief was formally recognized and permitted to administer his territory subject to prescribed conditions, and the tribute was fixed for a further period of twenty years, at the end of which it is liable to revision. The chief is under the general control of the Commissioner of Chhattīsgarh as regards all important matters of administration, including the settlement and collection of land revenue, the imposition of taxes, the administration of justice, arrangements connected with excise, salt, and opium, and disputes in which other States are concerned. He cannot levy import and export duties or transit dues, unless they are specially authorized by the Chief Commissioner; and he has no right to the produce of gold, silver, diamond, or coal mines

in the State or to any minerals underground, which are the property of the British Government. He is permitted to levy rents and certain other customary dues from his subjects, and is empowered to pass sentences of imprisonment up to five years and of fine to the extent of Rs. 200; but sentences of imprisonment for more than two years and of fine exceeding Rs. 50 require the confirmation of the Commissioner. Heinous offences calling for heavier punishment are dealt with by the Political Agent, Chhattīsgarh Feudatories, who exercises the powers of a District Magistrate and Assistant Sessions Judge; the Commissioner occupies the position of a Sessions Court in respect of such cases, while the functions of a High Court are performed by the Chief Commissioner.

The total revenue of the State from all sources in 1904–5 was Rs. 18,500, of which Rs. 6,600 was derived from land and Rs. 5,000 from forests. The total expenditure in the same year was Rs. 17,350, including Rs. 3,300 spent on administration and Rs. 8,660 on domestic charges. The tribute is Rs. 500 per annum, and the current revenue demand is Rs. 6,900. The *zamīndārs* hold immediately under the chief and pay annual rents, which in most cases are fixed permanently, besides certain cesses. The cultivators have no permanent rights in their land, but are allowed to hold it as long as they pay their rents and cesses and render customary service (*begār*) to the State. Besides the village *chaukīdārs* and *goraits*, who are remunerated in kind or hold grants of land, there is a salaried police force of 3 officers and 10 men. The State maintains a small jail with accommodation for 7 prisoners, in which prisoners sentenced to imprisonment for two years or less are confined. There is no school in the whole State, and in 1901 only 84 persons of the total population could read and write. Up to the present no dispensary has been established; 2,260 persons were successfully vaccinated in 1904–5.

Deogarh Peak.—Hill in the Koreā State, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 31′ N. and 82° 16′ E., with a height of 3,370 feet above sea-level.

Chāng Bhakār.—Tributary State in the Central Provinces, lying between 23° 29′ and 23° 55′ N. and 81° 35′ and 82° 21′ E., with an area of 904[1] square miles. Till 1905 it was included in the Chotā Nāgpur States of Bengal. It

[1] This figure, which differs slightly from the area shown in the Census Report of 1901, was supplied by the Surveyor-General.

is situated at the extreme western point of the Chotā Nāgpur Division of Bengal, projecting like a spur into the territory of the Central India State of Rewah, which bounds it on the north, west, and south. On the east it is bounded by Koreā State, of which it was formerly a dependency. The general aspect of the State is that of a dense and tangled mass of hills, ravines, and plateaux, covered with *sāl* (*Shorea robusta*) jungle and dotted at long intervals with small villages. The most prominent of the hill ranges takes a serpentine sweep from the north-east to the south-west, and rises in occasional peaks to more than 3,000 feet above sea-level. The scenery of the interior of the country is for the most part monotonous. Hill after hill repeats the same general outline, and is clothed with the same sombre masses of *sāl* foliage. Portions, however, of both the northern and southern frontiers rise into bold cliffs above the undulating table-land of Rewah, and seem to present an almost inaccessible barrier to a hostile advance. The highest peak is Murergarh (3,027 feet), and 32 others rise to a height of over 2,000 feet. The only rivers are the Banās, Bapti, and Neur, which rise in the range of hills which separates Chāng Bhakār from Koreā. The Banās runs west into Rewah and the Neur takes a north-easterly course into the same State; but both are mere hill streams with rocky beds and frequent rapids. Tigers, bears, leopards, and many kinds of deer abound. The ravages of wild elephants were at one time so serious as to cause the entire abandonment of village sites till a large number were captured. Notwithstanding the strong natural defences which the nature of the country affords, the State suffered so much in former days from Marāthā and Pindāri inroads that the chief granted eight of his frontier villages to influential Rājputs of Rewah to secure their co-operation against the marauders. The chief is connected with the Koreā family, and when the State first came under the authority of the British Government in 1819, it was included in the agreement ratified with the chief of Koreā; in 1848 it was separately settled. The residence of the present chief, Bhaiya Mahābīr Singh, is at BHARATPUR. Extensive rock-cut excavations exist near HARCHOKA, and there are remains of old temples at Chataonda and near Bhagwānpur.

The population increased from 18,526 in 1891 to 19,548 in 1901, but the density is only 22 persons to the square mile. There are altogether 117 villages. All but 32 of the inhabitants described themselves at the Census as Hindus, but they consist

almost entirely of Dravidian aborigines, the most numerous tribes being the Gonds (6,000) and Hos (5,000). Most of them depend on agriculture for their livelihood; they are generally poor, and their crops barely suffice for the actual requirements of their families. The State contains an enormous area of *sāl* forest; but little of the timber is of any size, and much has been destroyed, owing to a forest lease having been granted by the chief to some Bengali contractors on very inadequate terms and without any restriction as to the kind and size of trees to be felled. The country is very wild and no regular commerce is carried on, but the traders of Rewah from time to time import sugar, molasses, spices, salt, and cloth for local consumption. Two hill passes lead into Chāng Bhakār from the north—one near Harchoka and the other at Kāmārji. From these points two jungle roads meet at Berāsi in the centre of the State. Thence they diverge again, one leaving Chāng Bhakār by the main pass of Tiloti on the west, while the other turns to the south by way of Bargaon.

The relations of the chief with the British Government are regulated by a *sanad* granted in 1899, and reissued in 1905 with a few verbal changes due to the transfer of the State to the Central Provinces. Under this *sanad* the chief was formally recognized and permitted to administer his territory subject to prescribed conditions, and the tribute was fixed for a further period of twenty years, at the end of which it is liable to revision. The chief is under the general control of the Commissioner of Chhattīsgarh as regards all important matters of administration, including the settlement and collection of land revenue, the imposition of taxes, the administration of justice, arrangements connected with excise, salt, and opium, and disputes in which other States are concerned. He cannot levy import and export duties or transit dues, unless they are specially authorized by the Chief Commissioner; and he has no right to the produce of gold, silver, diamond, or coal mines in the State or to any minerals underground, which are the property of the British Government. He is permitted to levy rents and certain other customary dues from his subjects, and is empowered to pass sentences of imprisonment up to five years and of fine to the extent of Rs. 200; but sentences of imprisonment for more than two years and of fine exceeding Rs. 50 require the confirmation of the Commissioner. Heinous offences calling for heavier punishment are dealt with by the Political Agent, Chhattīsgarh Feudatories, who exercises the powers of a District Magistrate and Assistant Sessions Judge;

the Commissioner occupies the position of a Sessions Court in respect of such cases, while the functions of a High Court are performed by the Chief Commissioner.

The total revenue of the State in 1904–5 was Rs. 13,000, of which Rs. 1,770 was derived from land. The expenditure also amounted to Rs. 13,000, including Rs. 2,600 spent on administration and Rs. 2,200 on granary establishment. The tribute is Rs. 387 and the revenue demand Rs. 1,770 per annum. The *zamīndārs* hold immediately under the chief and pay annual rents, which in most cases are fixed permanently, besides certain cesses. The cultivators have no permanent rights in their land, but are allowed to hold it as long as they pay their rents and cesses regularly and render the customary service (*begār*) to the State. There is a small police force of 4 officers and 7 men; but in addition to the salaried members of this force there are village *chaukīdārs* and *goraits*, who are remunerated in kind or hold grants of land. The State contains a small jail with accommodation for 10 prisoners, in which prisoners sentenced to two years' imprisonment or less are confined; those incarcerated for longer periods are sent to a British jail. Education is very backward, only 47 of the whole population being able to read and write in 1901; one school has, however, been opened recently. The State contains no dispensary; 730 persons were successfully vaccinated in 1904–5.

Bharatpur Village.—Head-quarters of the Chāng Bhakār State, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 44′ N. and 81° 49′ E., 2 miles north-west of Janakpur on the Banās river. Population (1901), 635. On three sides the village is surrounded by forest-clad hills, but on the north the country slopes down to the valley of the Banās river. The river itself, though distant only a mile, is concealed from view by an intervening stretch of jungle. The village contains the house of the Bhaiya, as the chief is called.

Harchoka.—Village in the Chāng Bhakār State, Central Provinces, situated in 23° 52′ N. and 81° 43′ E., on the Muwāhi river close to the northern boundary of the State. The remains of extensive rock excavations, supposed to be temples and monasteries, were discovered here in 1870–1; they appear to be the work of a more civilized race than the present inhabitants of the State.

INDEX

A.

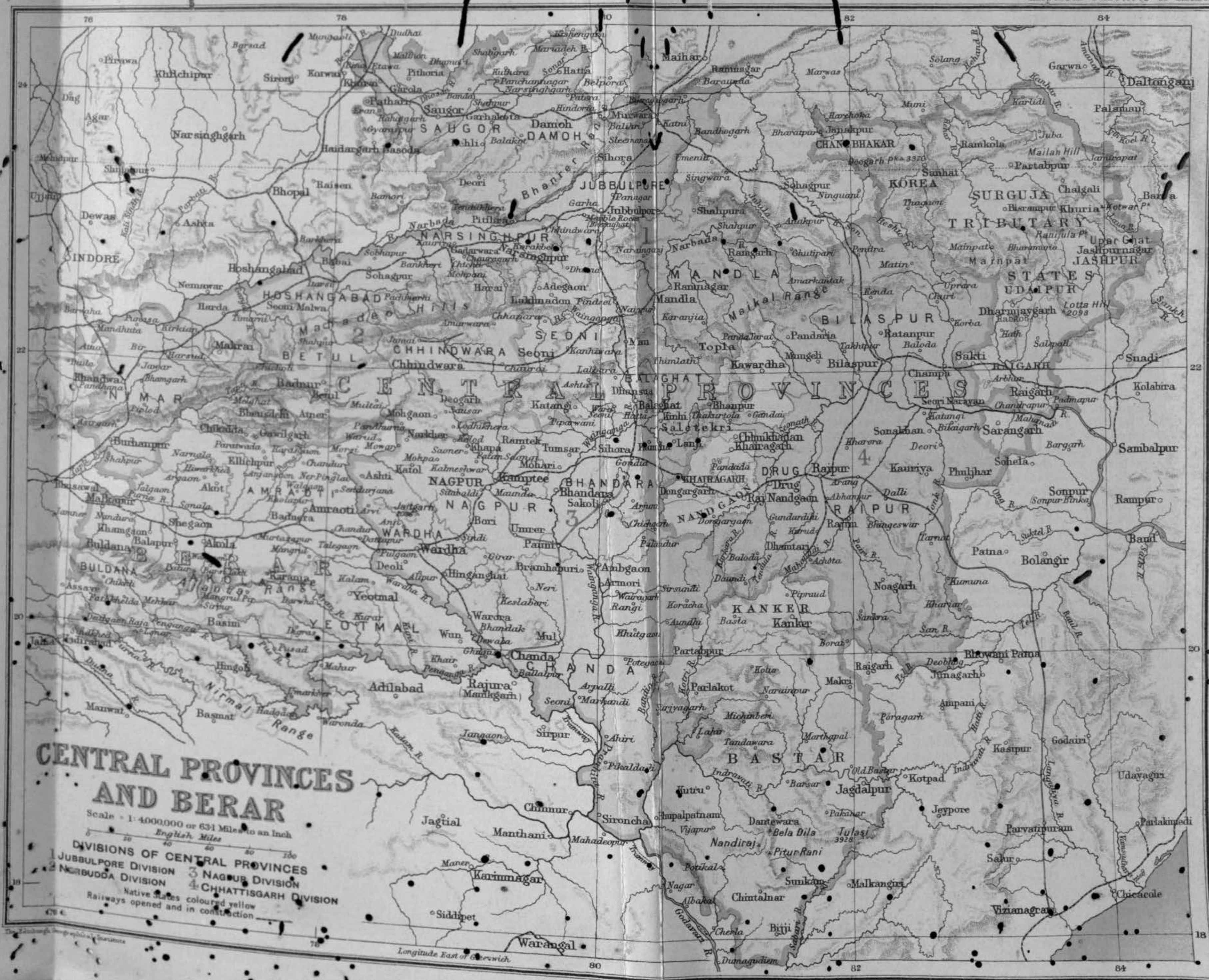
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N.

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R.

Oxford: HORACE HART, Printer to the University.


CENTRAL PROVINCES AND BERAR
Scale - 1:4,000,000 or 63.1 Miles to an Inch
English Miles
DIVISIONS OF CENTRAL PROVINCES
1 JUBBULPORE DIVISION
2 NERBUDDA DIVISION
3 NAGPUR DIVISION
4 CHHATTISGARH DIVISION
Native States coloured yellow
Railways opened and in construction
CENTRAL PROVINCES
BERAR
SAUGOR
DAMOH
JUBBULPORE
MANDLA
NARSINGHPUR
HOSHANGABAD
BETUL
CHHINDWARA
SEONI
BALAGHAT
BILASPUR
RAIPUR
DRUG
NAGPUR
WARDHA
BHANDARA
CHANDA
NIMAR
AMRAOTI
AKOLA
BULDANA
YEOTMAL
KANKER
BASTAR
KHAIRAGARH
NANDGAON
CHANGBHAKAR
KOREA
SURGUJA
TRIBUTARY STATES
UDAIPUR
JASHPUR
RAIGARH
Mahadeo Hills
Maikal Range
Satmala Hills
Nirmal Range
Bhanrer Range
Jubbulpore
Saugor
Damoh
Nagpur
Raipur
Bilaspur
Chanda
Wardha
Amraoti
Akola
Buldana
Hoshangabad
Chhindwara
Seoni
Mandla
Bhandara
Jagdalpur
Sambalpur
Indore
Bhopal
Ujjain
Daltonganj
Warangal
Godavari R.
Narbada R.
Wainganga R.
Longitude East of Greenwich
76
78
80
82
84
24
22
20
18